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CLARIFYING THE TEACHER'S PROBLEMS

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By THE SAME AUTHOR

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SUPERVISION

**THE TEACHING AND SUPERVISION OF
READING** (in collaboration with William A.
King)

**THE ADMINISTRATION OF AN ELEMENTARY
SCHOOL**

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS

CLARIFYING THE TEACHER'S PROBLEMS

BY

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CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS

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TO
RUTH PALMER GIST

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PREFACE

Changes in Education.—We are constantly experiencing changes in our social life, in our industries, and in our points of view, largely due to scientific discovery and invention. In the field of Education many of our basic principles remain fairly constant throughout the ages. However, as we add to and modify these basic principles, we are influenced by psychological studies, highly scientific in character. These studies have considerable influence upon our points of view as educators. We modify our aims and improve our technique to attain these changed objectives. This requires a constantly changing methodology for influencing and instructing our pupils in the schools.

Teachers in preparation and those of limited experience need professional reading material which keeps abreast with our ever-changing views and practices of procedure. This book is intended for these teachers in training and for those who have but recently entered the profession.

The material in this volume is based largely upon the author's experience in the training of teachers as Director of Training at the San Francisco State Teachers College, his years of experience in supervising inexperienced teachers, and his professional contacts with mature teachers who occasionally need a new viewpoint, guidance, and stimulation. The material herein was developed by the author with these students and teachers over a period of years. This book is written to serve as a text in the required course which accom-

panies practice teaching in normal schools and teachers' colleges. In some curricula this course is designated as "The Elementary School Curriculum." In other curricula it is called "Basic Studies." Hence the book is intended for these classes :

1. Teachers in training.
2. Teachers of limited experience.
3. Mature teachers whose points of view may require some modification and whose interest in boys and girls may require some guidance and stimulation along present-day lines.

Acknowledgments.—The author wishes to acknowledge indebtedness to R. D. Lindquist, Director of Laboratory Schools, Ohio State University, to F. E. Willard of the Seattle Schools, and to Miss Grace Carter, Vice-Principal Elementary School and Assistant Director Practice Teaching, San Francisco State Teachers College, for intelligent and sympathetic inspiration and guidance as co-workers in supervising teachers in training and teachers in service. The author also feels indebted to Doctor A. J. Hamilton, President of Chico State Teachers College, for valuable suggestions on certain parts of the manuscript.

A. S. G.

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INTRODUCTION

A book for young teachers should be a book for the times. These have changed. The "recitation," so long the sacred cow of the public school, is no longer the be-all and end-all of pedagogy. Except for a few belated Herbartians, no one with any claim to notice thinks of setting up a formula or series of formulas for its "conduct." The daily "lesson" is not now the unit of instruction, and the daily lesson plan, with its general aims and specific aims, content and procedure, questions and answers, has gone the way of bustles and top buggies. The school is becoming a hive of industry instead of a place to sit, and the teacher an older sister to the pupils instead of a taskmaster. She is admitted to have her share of common sense and a wholesome aversion to high-sounding abstractions concerning the theory of education. She is little by little becoming a true professional, with something of the breadth of interest and pride of workmanship which that concept implies. In her own experience, moreover, she has become familiar with a vast deal of the procedures and techniques by means of which common school education has been accustomed to get itself done.

The author of this book has evidently taken these things into account. Like Boone when he outwitted the Indians, he has put himself in the place of the young person entering the work of teaching and asked himself what such a person really wants to know. The result is a readable and unhackneyed discussion. What is the modern viewpoint as to the nature and purposes of

public schools? How do such schools differ from the schools of but a short while ago? What is meant by "creative education"? By "measuring" intelligence and achievement? What activities do children engage in nowadays when they "study" English, arithmetic, science, and the arts? What is the new conception of discipline and how does the school provide opportunity for the growth of moral character? How does it, moreover, preserve worthy individual differences while it at the same time socializes?

To questions such as these the author has addressed himself with creditable success. He speaks from an experience, more than ordinarily wide and varied, in orienting both teachers in training and teachers lately entered into service. He has had opportunity to observe the workings of the more progressive schools in all parts of the country and as editor has gathered and prepared for publication a large number of accounts of successful work performed by principals of schools. Once a beginner in a normal school, seeking light and leading of his elders, he has now become himself a guide to youth about to enter his calling. With the skill acquired by practice, he has collected and ordered the concrete data necessary to make his treatment convincing, and he has provided the apparatus of questions, problems, and references with which modern texts are fitted for use by students in schools or out. The work as a whole is a distinctive contribution to the literature of education and will no doubt prove highly valuable to the classes of teachers for which it was designed.

Teachers College,
Columbia University.

JAMES F. HOSIC.

CHAPTER I

THE TEACHER'S IDEALS

Preview Questions

1. How may ideals constitute controlling forces in life?
2. How may our associates check our attitudes, interests, and enthusiasms?
3. What personal characteristics are necessary to successful teaching?
4. Do necessary qualities for successful teaching in the primary grades differ from those necessary in the upper grades and in the high school?
5. How may you keep alive professionally while in service?
6. What obligations do you as a teacher have to society? To the teaching profession?

Importance of Ideals.—Progress is determined quite largely by the ideals which we hold constantly before us. Possibly our most lofty ideals will never be fully realized, yet our own efficiency is increased by our thoughtful effort to attain these aspirations. In the words of James Allen: "Whatever your present environment may be, you will fall, remain, or rise with your Thoughts, your Vision, your Ideal. You will become as small as your controlling desire; as great as your dominant aspiration." Teachers as well as others must have ideals. The ideals of the teacher and the realization of them may well be classified under two divisions:

A. Her equipment.

- (a) Her ideals in preparing herself to teach.
- (b) Her ideals when teaching.

B. Her service.

A. Her Equipment.

1. The teacher's attitude and enthusiasm for her

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chosen work will contribute very largely toward her success, her happiness, and her satisfaction. Successful people are happy in their work. It is interesting to them; has an appeal to them. Conversely, we may think of failure, drudgery and actual slavery in a chosen vocation as being closely associated with lack of interest in the work.

2. The teacher with ideals believes in education, in training, and in development of childhood to the highest possible degree. She believes in public and private education as essential to individual efficiency and to a successful democracy.

3. The teacher believes in children. She sees all their potentialities for success and happiness in a highly developed civilization. She is capable of overlooking certain shortcomings, of seeing their desirable qualities, of seeing what they are likely to become in a wholesome environment under sympathetic, intelligent guidance and leadership. The teacher sees that the children of today are the best of all the ages.

4. The teacher has lofty personal qualities before her as ideals, as these will bring her success and happiness. She is attractive and appropriately dressed. She possesses vigor and dynamic power with a "time sense" which gets things done. Her voice inspires confidence, warmth of feeling, comradeship, and the right kind of leadership. The teacher has poise, nerve control, cheerfulness, and optimism which look for the best in her pupils. Her character is such that she secures the respect of all, which makes it possible for her to influence children favorably. As the teacher recognizes the above qualities she tries to possess them.

The teacher's scholarship and training must be of a

type which brings success and satisfaction to herself. As a student she will analyze the great social problems, educational philosophy, teaching techniques, and psychological principles of childhood. The training will be of two types, the pre-service (before teaching experience) and the in-service type (during teaching experience).

(1) Pre-service training is improving rapidly. It includes a more practical type and a broader, more liberal, and more scholastic training than it formerly embraced. The practical phase gives training which will tend to make the teacher successful at once. The academic training expands and deepens her vision. This training is becoming largely of college grade, with the bachelor's degree required in many states.

During the pre-service period of her training the teacher studies herself to make sure she is fitted to teach and will enjoy it. Aptitude tests will often enlighten the embryo teacher as to her fitness to take up teaching.

The author has found such tests which check professional judgment, theory and practice of teaching, reading comprehension, school and class management very suggestive as to a student's teaching potentialities.¹

During this period she will also study the type of teaching for which she is best fitted, and in which she is most likely to secure employment upon graduation. For instance, kindergarten and primary teaching re-

¹ *Aptitude Tests for Elementary and High School Teachers*, by J. E. Bathurst, F. B. Knight, G. M. Ruch, and Fred Tilford, Bureau of Public Personnel Administration, Mills Building, Washington, D. C. *Coxe-Orleans Prognosis Test of Teaching Ability*. World Book Co.

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quire different personal qualities from the more advanced grades. The primary teacher must forget herself; she must come down to the children's level in arousing interest and in appealing to them. She must have a thorough knowledge of child psychology, which is especially essential in these primary grades. On the other hand in the advanced grades the teacher is more of a subject specialist, but still a child specialist.

The teacher will also study the possibilities of securing the type of work which she enjoys. In one of the largest cities of the country several interesting observations have been made of the supply and demand of teachers. They are as follows:

1. At times more social science teachers are applying than the schools can use.

2. The supply of teachers of English is about equal to the demand.

3. The demand for teachers of Latin is very slight.

4. Four candidates for positions out of one hundred twenty-eight who applied had German as their major, although this city had no opportunity to place one full-time teacher of German. In the placement bureau of a nearby University it was found that there were six teachers for every vacant position in art. In the elementary field the demand for teachers more nearly equals the supply, but this condition may change with single salary schedules and equal qualifications. The teacher in service studies her own fitness and talents as well as the qualifications necessary for the various phases of teaching.

(2) The in-service training continues the teacher's studies along with her service as a teacher. She recognizes the principle of growth and development as being

continuous, and realizes that the pre-service training builds the foundation for further study and growth while in service. She knows that growth is essential to success and satisfaction; that the growing teacher is by far the most efficient. This growth may be augmented in the following ways:

- (a) Extension and summer school courses.
- (b) Thoughtful professional reading of new books and of professional journals, regularly.
- (c) The reading of good books and periodicals of the general type.
- (d) Professional lectures.
- (e) Discussion groups composed of members of the teaching profession with kindred problems.
- (f) Scientific experimentation within her own classroom.
- (g) Thoughtful visitation of successful teachers.
- (h) Ready response to helpful supervision.
- (i) Plans for self-improvement.

B. Her Service.—The teacher's ideals include a consciousness of service of the highest type to be rendered. This service may be divided into the following classifications:

1. Service to the pupils.
2. Service to society.
3. Service to the profession.

Service to the Pupils.—The teacher has for an ideal the best possible service to the pupils. They are with her but a short time, therefore she wants to do as much as possible for them. She wants to develop them morally and socially, mentally and physically. The means for realizing this ideal will be discussed later

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in the book. She is a friend, a counsellor and a director of learning.

Service to Society.—The teacher realizes that she has a responsibility to society in training childhood for the highest possible degree of efficiency. The success of the organized form of civilization depends upon group consciousness, the subordinating of feelings of individual and personal liberties and rights with the welfare of all in all plans. She realizes the important responsibilities of race betterment which society has delegated to her and the importance of her measuring up to this responsibility. The teacher realizes the truth of the axiom, "What we want a nation to become, we must first put into the schools." She paraphrases it as follows, "What we want a race, a civilization to become we must first place before the children in the form of training."

Service to the Profession.—The teacher also has as her ideal a high type of service to the profession of teaching. For in no other way she realizes the necessity of making her work a profession, of co-operating with others in her chosen work. She finds that teaching already has been made a profession. Evidence of this is shown in the following practices:

1. Stabilizing policies are now in vogue to attract the best abilities and personalities to the teaching profession, and then to make the work so interesting, so attractive, and so remunerative that the teachers will remain in their chosen work without using it as a stepping stone to some other vocation. In the teacher-training institutions steps are being taken to predict teaching success by entrance examinations which determine mental capacity, scholastic attainments, and per-

THE TEACHER'S IDEALS

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TEACHER-RATING BLANK

Teacher.....Building.....Subject taught.....
Date.....

DETAILED RATING		I V.P.	2:3 Poor	4:5:6 Med.	7:8 Good	9:10 Ex.
I. Personal Equipment	1. General appearance.....		:	:	:	:
	2. Health.....		:	:	:	:
	3. Voice.....		:	:	:	:
	4. Intellectual capacity.....		:	:	:	:
	5. Initiative and self-reliance.....		:	:	:	:
	6. Adaptability and resourcefulness.....		:	:	:	:
	7. Accuracy.....		:	:	:	:
	8. Industry.....		:	:	:	:
	9. Enthusiasm and optimism.....		:	:	:	:
	10. Integrity and sincerity.....		:	:	:	:
	11. Self-control.....		:	:	:	:
	12. Promptness.....		:	:	:	:
	13. Tact.....		:	:	:	:
	14. Sense of justice.....		:	:	:	:
II. Social Professional Equipment	15. Academic preparation.....		:	:	:	:
	16. Professional preparation.....		:	:	:	:
	17. Grasp of subject matter.....		:	:	:	:
	18. Understanding of children.....		:	:	:	:
	19. Interest in the life of the school.....		:	:	:	:
	20. Interest in the life of the community.....		:	:	:	:
	21. Ability to meet and interest patrons.....		:	:	:	:
	22. Interest in lives of pupils.....		:	:	:	:
	23. Co-operation and loyalty.....		:	:	:	:
	24. Professional interest and growth.....		:	:	:	:
	25. Daily preparation.....		:	:	:	:
III. School Management	26. Use of English.....		:	:	:	:
	27. Care of light, heat, and ventilation.....		:	:	:	:
	28. Neatness of room.....		:	:	:	:
	29. Care of routine.....		:	:	:	:
IV. Technique of Teaching	30. Discipline (governing skill).....		:	:	:	:
	31. Definiteness and clearness of aim.....		:	:	:	:
	32. Skill in habit formation.....		:	:	:	:
	33. Skill in stimulating thought.....		:	:	:	:
	34. Skill in teaching how to study.....		:	:	:	:
	35. Skill in questioning.....		:	:	:	:
	36. Choice of subject matter.....		:	:	:	:
	37. Organization of subject matter.....		:	:	:	:
	38. Skill and care in assignment.....		:	:	:	:
	39. Skill in motivating work.....		:	:	:	:
	40. Attention to individual needs.....		:	:	:	:
V. Results	41. Attention and response of the class.....		:	:	:	:
	42. Growth of pupils in subject matter.....		:	:	:	:
	43. General development of pupils.....		:	:	:	:
	44. Stimulation of community.....		:	:	:	:
	45. Moral influence.....		:	:	:	:
GENERAL RATING						

Rule for averaging: Place a check in the column representing your rating on each item.

Give each check a numerical value equal to the no. of the column.

Counting from left, then average, e. g., 25 (10) = 250 400 ÷ 45 = 8.8

$$\begin{array}{r} 10 (9) = 90 \\ 10 (6) = 60 \\ \hline 400 \end{array}$$

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sonality traits. We see some instances of diverting those candidates without promise to other vocations. In most cases the candidates for teaching are rated at the beginning of their practice teaching experience, so that weak qualities may be improved before it is too late. Candidates for teaching positions are also considered from the standpoint of training and personal qualities. Many cities secure personal interviews in which the candidates are rated on personal qualities as well as upon scholarship and experience. The most common personal traits considered are personal appearance, voice, poise, and manner.

In the elementary field a most outstanding policy is that of the single salary schedules. This policy tends to insure stability by attracting worthy teachers into the elementary field and then keeping them there. It insures teachers of college training, or its equivalent, the same salary as in the secondary field. It further insures a "square deal" for the children in the elementary school and for the teachers in the elementary field where their ability, talent, interests and experience may be capitalized to the best advantage for society. About 155 school systems now have single salary schedules for the teachers and at least one large, progressive school system applies such a schedule to the salaries of the principals.

2. Standardized practices and scientific methods of instruction are now in vogue, which is a further step toward professionalizing teaching. Reducing to a scientific basis as much of our teaching practices as possible is one of the outstanding features of our modern programme. For example, in the field of reading we have made approximately 450 scientific studies, the

majority of them having been made within the last fifteen years. Our present practices have been considerably influenced by the most important of these studies. These studies have also influenced other investigations. Professionalizing practices thus include scientific thinking.

3. Professionalizing teaching includes democratic procedures, with all working on a co-operative basis.

4. An important element in our professionalizing has been our desire to organize into various professional groups, the purpose of organization being to improve efficiency.

Statistics compiled by the National Education Association show approximately that sixty-two per cent of the physicians of the country belong to the American Medical Association, that twenty per cent of the lawyers belong to the American Bar Association, and about nineteen per cent of the teachers belong to the National Education Association. If we add to this last number the teachers belonging to various State and local organizations, we have approximately sixty per cent of the teachers as members of some professional group, which is nearly as favorable a record as for the medical profession.

The National Education Association is one of the most useful professional organizations in the world. It has about 200,000 members with nineteen departments and ten other groups meeting with the large organization. Membership in four departments is indicative of professional interest: The Department of Superintendence, 3700; the Department of Secondary Principals, 3500; the Department of Elementary Principals, 4600; the Department of Classroom Teachers most of the 200,000 members of the N. E. A.

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Other important professional groups include the National Society for the Study of Education, which is one of our oldest; the National Society of College Teachers of Education; the Educational Research Association; the National Society for Vocational Education; the American Association for the Advancement of Science; the Association of Supervisors of Student Teachers, and the Progressive Education Association. Most professional organizations have annual meetings, prepare scientific yearbooks and other publications. Some of these publications include monthly journals read by at least 600,000 teachers.

5. Devotion to teaching as a career is another important element which characterizes the professionalizing of teaching. Teachers are probably the most conscientious group of people in the world. They are devoted to their chosen work and to the children they seek to influence.

6. Adequate training and standardized requirements are another important problem which tends to professionalize teaching. We have progressed a long way since the following editorial appeared in a colonial newspaper during the Revolution days:

"In the Ship *Paca* arrived at Baltimore in five weeks from Belfast and Cork are imported and advertised for sale in the Maryland Journal various Irish commodities, among which are beef, pork, potatoes and school masters." The first state normal school in the United States was established in 1839 in Lexington, Massachusetts, about sixty years after this advertisement in the colonial paper. Now we see teaching as a skilled profession, with ninety-three per cent of the cities of the country requiring at least two years of training be-

yond the four years of high school for the elementary school teachers and nearly all of the cities of 2500 inhabitants and over requiring four years of college work and the bachelor's degree for the elementary school teachers and five years for the high school teachers. Thus we see adequate training for the profession of teaching more nearly realized.

7. A desire to grow and to continue the teachers' studies is another element in the professionalizing of teaching. At the present time about thirty-five per cent of the teachers of the country attend some summer school each year, the majority of this number taking some courses in education. The other courses tend to enlarge and to broaden their vision. Large numbers of teachers also take extension work during the year. Many cities of the country reward the teachers who attend summer school by an increase in salary. The doctor who attends a medical clinic expects to serve his community better and possibly to increase the financial returns for his services. The same principle actuates these cities in increasing the salaries of the teachers who take advanced work. Travel is recognized as valuable to the teacher; hence some increase in salary is sometimes provided. Leaves of absence for study and travel are often arranged on a very satisfactory basis, the teachers in some cities receiving part of their salary while taking such leaves.

8. Adequate remuneration for teaching is making the profession more self-respecting. As we increase the training and responsibilities we more fully realize the relation between adequate salaries and efficient teachers, the relation between efficient teaching and efficient citizenship. While the average salary of all teachers

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in the United States is but \$1364¹ we find some very favorable tendencies to pay salaries which more nearly recognize the teachers' services to society.

The medium salaries paid elementary school teachers in the cities are as follows:²

1. Cities of 2500 to 5000.....	\$1212
2. Cities of 5000 to 10,000.....	1342
3. Cities of 10,000 to 30,000.....	1415
4. Cities of 30,000 to 100,000.....	1607
5. Cities of over 100,000.....	2063

9. Codes of Professional Ethics are now commonly in use in three of our professions, Medicine, Law and Teaching. Various phases of these codes are applied to members of these professions when indiscreet persons do not observe the ideals of the professions. In medicine, we read of a physician being relieved of his membership in a medical association for testifying as to the sanity of an accused murderer in another part of the country. The physicians in this association felt that it is unethical to use the medical profession solely for private gain when the doctor knows nothing about the sanity of the accused. In law we also find a decided tendency to be ethical. We read of a lawyer being deprived of his membership in a bar association for accepting a "present" from an accused person for "legal services" rendered while a judge on the bench. In the teaching profession we are just as anxious to have no one who will in any way cast reflections upon our ethical standards. The Code of Ethics prepared by the National Education Association is comprehensive and

¹ In 1928 annual average increase approximately \$33.

² From *National Education Association Research Bulletin*, Vol. VII, No. 3, May, 1929, "Salary Scales in City School Systems."

suggestive. The suggestion has been made that publicity be given to teachers' codes, that the public may judge us.

ETHICS OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

Preamble.—In order that the aims of education may be realized more fully, that the welfare of the teaching profession may be promoted, that teachers may know what is considered proper procedure, and may bring to their professional relations high standards of conduct the National Education Association of the United States has developed this code of ethics. (The term "teacher" as used in this code is intended to include every person directly engaged in educational work whether in a teaching, an administrative, or a supervisory capacity.)

Article One.—Relations with Pupils and to the Community.—Section 1. The schoolroom is not the proper theatre for religious, political, or personal propaganda. The teacher should exercise his full rights as a citizen but he should avoid controversies which may tend to decrease his value as a teacher.

Section 2. The teacher should not permit his educational work to be used for partisan politics, personal gain, or selfish propaganda of any kind.

Section 3. In instructional, administrative, and other relations with pupils, the teacher should be impartial, just, and professional. The teacher should consider the different interests, aptitudes, abilities, and social environments of pupils.

Section 4. The professional relations of the teacher with his pupils demand the same scrupulous guarding of confidential and official information as is observed by members of other long-established professions.

Section 5. The teacher should seek to establish friendly and intelligent co-operation between the home and the school.

Section 6. The teacher should not tutor pupils of his classes for pay.

Article Two.—Relations to the Professions.—Section 1. Members of the teaching profession should dignify their calling in every way. The teacher should encourage the ablest to enter it, and discourage from entering those who are merely using

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the teaching profession as a stepping stone to some other vocation.

Section 2. The teacher should maintain his efficiency and teaching skill by study and by contact with local, state, and national educational organizations.

Section 3. A teacher's own life should show that education does ennoble.

Section 4. While not limiting his services by reason of small salary, the teacher should insist upon a salary scale suitable to his place in society.

Section 5. The teacher should not exploit his school or himself by personally inspired press notices or advertisements, or by other unprofessional means, and should avoid innuendo and criticism particularly of successors or predecessors.

Section 6. The teacher should not apply for another position for the sole purpose of forcing an increase in salary in his present position. Correspondingly, school officials should not pursue a policy of refusing to give deserved salary increases to their employees until offers from other school systems have forced them to do so.

Section 7. The teacher should not act as an agent, or accept a commission, royalty, or other reward, for books or supplies in the selection or purchase of which he can influence, or exercise the right of decision; nor should he accept a commission or other compensation for helping another teacher to secure a position.

Article Three.—Relations to Members of the Profession.—

Section 1. A teacher should avoid unfavorable criticism of other teachers except such as is formally presented to a school official in the interests of the school. It is also unprofessional to fail to report to duly constituted authority any matters which involve the best interests of the school.

Section 2. A teacher should not interfere between another teacher and a pupil in matters such as discipline or marking.

Section 3. There should be co-operation between administrators and classroom teachers, founded upon sympathy for each other's point of view and recognition of the administrator's right to leadership and the teacher's right to self-expression. Both teachers and administrators should observe professional

courtesy by transacting official business with the properly designated person next in rank.

Section 4. The teacher should not apply for a specific position unless a vacancy exists. Unless the rules of the school otherwise prescribe, he should apply for a teaching position to the chief executive. He should not knowingly underbid a rival in order to secure a position; neither should he knowingly underbid a salary schedule.

Section 5. Qualification should be the sole determining factor in appointment and promotion. School officials should encourage and carefully nurture the professional growth of worthy teachers by recommending promotion, either in their own school or in other schools. For school officials to fail to recommend a worthy teacher for another position because they do not desire to lose his services is unethical.

Section 6. Testimonials regarding a teacher should be frank, candid, and confidential.

Section 7. A contract, once signed, should be faithfully adhered to until it is dissolved by mutual consent. In case of emergency, the thoughtful consideration which business sanction demands should be given by both parties to the contract.

Section 8. Due notification should be given by school officials and teachers in case a change in position is to be made.—Adopted by the National Education Association, July, 1929.

The following outlines contrasting two teachers working side by side may help you to appreciate the difference in their ideals:¹ They are teaching the same grades, doing the same work, and, supposedly, getting the same results, but—

“One has a strong and pleasing personality;

One shakes hands with a firm warm grip;

One is kindly sympathetic;

The other is colorless.

The other drops her hand in yours like a wet codfish.

The other is indifferent.

¹ From the April, 1925, issue of *The Journal of the National Education Association*.

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One stands squarely on her own feet;	The other needs crutches.
One inspires love of work;	The other inspires indifference or downright hatred of work.
One is loyal to all that is best;	The other not disloyal but unloyal.
One teaches living souls;	The other teaches facts.
One travels the sunlit heights;	The other the narrow ravine.
One lives to teach;	The other teaches to live.
One's chief pay is in the joy of accomplishment and in the growing souls of her children;	The other's only pay is in a city check."

Conclusion.—The teacher's ideals, therefore, may be summarized as physical vigor, fitness and attractiveness; a strong character; pleasing, effective personality; adequate scholarship which secures success with subject matter, and professional ideals, which result in efficient, co-operative service to the pupils, to the teaching vocation, and to society.

Suggestive Problems

1. Miss Smith always seems to have the good will of her pupils. How does she secure it?
2. There are times, however, when Miss Smith's influence does not seem to be the best. What are some indications of this?
3. Name a few of the outstanding attitudes and skills which you would like to secure during your training.
4. How may you determine the grades and the type of teaching for which you are best fitted?
5. In what respects do our professional codes appeal to the general public?
6. Make a list of the possible contributions of broad cultural background to successful teaching.
7. Make a self-checking rating blank suitable for your own use.
8. Analyze desirable elements of professional attitude in teaching.

9. Mrs. Jones offers you extra compensation to tutor her child in your room. How would you meet this situation?
10. What prompted you to become a teacher?
11. What books of general culture do you plan reading within the next year? What have you read during the last year?
12. What educational journals do you plan reading?
13. List valuable items to consider in preparing for a visiting day.
14. Suggest the benefits to you of writing occasionally for educational journals.
15. Recall the teacher who influenced the most; the least. List the personal characteristics of each.
16. Think of some worthy ideal which you had early in life. What have you done toward the realization of this ideal?
17. Make a list of ideals which you might develop with first grade pupils. How would you proceed to develop these ideals?
18. Miller¹ states, "Education is not bestowed; it must be everlastingly achieved." Evaluate this statement.

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CHAPTER II

FUNCTIONS OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Preview Questions

1. In what respects do the functions of Elementary Education differ from those of Secondary Education?
2. What have playground activities to contribute in socializing your pupils?
3. How can the school make the transition from the home to the outside world successful?
4. How can the school contribute to the development of attitudes? Habits? Skills?
5. How are ideals closely associated with the development of habits?

Variety of Functions.—Elementary education may be said to have the following objectives:

1. To continue and to extend the learning begun in the home, through actual practice of all desirable social relationships.

2. Although non-specialized in aim and in organization, it plans to discover and to develop latent interests and inclinations.

3. To provide opportunities for the pupils to develop analytic, constructive, creative thinking.

4. To develop the ability and the desire to acquire useful and interesting information regarding the world's development and activities.

5. To develop moderate skills in the use of the fundamentals of language expression, reading habits and tastes and computation of numbers.

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6. To develop the appreciations of wholesome interests.

7. To develop a sound body and correct health habits.

8. To develop wholesome mental habits and attitudes.

9. To lay the foundation for secondary education.

Social Relationships.—The school quite often is the first agency outside of the home to establish and to broaden the social contacts of the child. The author well remembers starting for school for the first time at the age of five and one-half years. He took the hand of an older brother, and looked back to wave a farewell to his mother standing on the front porch. He little understood at the time why his mother wiped a tear from her eye with her apron. This wise and sympathetic mother, realizing the importance and the seriousness of this broadened outlook with the world outside the home, doubtless had a fervent prayer for the little tad who was just beginning his wider social contacts. The modern elementary school is fully conscious of this important step, and provides every opportunity possible that this initial step may be a thoroughly successful one.

The child at once sees authority exercised over himself for the first time outside of the home. This is a new and a strange experience for him. It often is a different type of authority. Often it is more stern, more inclusive as the participation in the larger group requires in many instances different standards and different purposes. In some cases the home's influence has been of the right kind to make these first school contacts easy. The child has been taught self-responsibility and respect for the welfare of the larger

group, but it is different, and a period of adjustment must be made easy and profitable for him. In some cases this respect for the larger group's welfare and his self-responsibility have not been sufficiently developed in the home to make this adjustment easy. The school must then develop this attitude and ability step by step. Wisely, sympathetically, and at times somewhat firmly, this development or this attitude toward the rights of all must be continued throughout the child's school life.

The requirements of modern society demand this respect and attitude. It is very doubtful if we have at all times the right attitude toward the common good and toward laws made in the interest of all. Personal liberty surely must cease when the larger social welfare is at stake. Laws should be respected and wisely enforced while on the statutes. Nullification of our laws should come by way of legislative enactments, and not by ignoring them and wilfully violating them. This attitude must be developed by all social institutions, the school being an important agency with children in this problem. There are many opportunities for the school to use in developing this group consciousness. Participation in the planning and carrying out of all school enterprises is one very valuable means. School clubs and organizations of all kinds, under wise guidance, will train the pupils in group participation in school and for community contacts later in life.

Adults have had experiences which should contribute to the enrichment of children's lives. It is important that pupils in the school appreciate this broadened experience. It requires considerable skill on the part

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of the school to develop this attitude, but it is not impossible, by any means.

Another opportunity within the possibilities of the school's programme is through playground activities. Many are of the opinion, as they study the possibilities and results of these activities, that the social values are even greater than the physical benefits. Many of life's most important problems are clearly shown on the playgrounds. Many essential personal traits can well be developed there. Group consciousness, team work, respect for decisions, good sportsmanship in defeat, and humbleness in victory, so necessary in adult life, may all be taught on the playground.

The development of self-reliance and self-responsibility should also be developed in the elementary school. The opportunities in this respect are most numerous. Care in looking after clothing and other personal property and school equipment is an important aim for elementary education. Kindergarten and primary teachers in some cases teach their pupils for the first time how to put on and take off their outdoor wraps, even their rubbers and overshoes. These teachers realize the importance of developing this responsibility. They realize it to the extent that they insist upon it. The writer on one occasion observed a small second grade pupil insist upon her mother putting her rubbers on when the parent visited the school. He observed also the teacher assert her classroom authority and require the child to perform her usual school task, much to the astonishment of the mother and to the pride of the principal, in the skill, judgment, and tact of the teacher.

Individual Needs.—Elementary education must also

discover and develop wholesome latent aptitudes of the pupils. One valuable opportunity for attaining this aim is by means of the creative types of instruction which is discussed in a later chapter. The elementary school is very largely non-specialized in aim and in form of organization, yet the pupils' individualities, desires, and inclinations can well be discovered and developed. Elementary education is very largely general in character, but within its limitations it surely can be varied and enriched in aim and in variety of activities to meet individual needs.

Creative Thinking.—Developing creativeness is an important function in elementary education not always fully realized. Universally we are beginning to accept the psychological principle that even younger children have the power to think, to reason, to analyze quite clearly within certain limits. We now supplement our suggestions to children as to what they should do, by guiding them in thinking through what they should do. We train pupils by bringing them out rather than by stifling them. The elementary school can accomplish much in character development by reasoning methods. An important emergency presents itself in school as in life. It is of a nature which confronts adults in life. Under the skilful guidance of the teacher the pupils can be trained to analyze behavior which is best for all of them to follow. Character development is most permanent and most profitable when the child does his own constructive thinking.

Many school subjects in elementary education can also make use of this aim to develop the power and the desire to think. In the social studies the teacher has a splendid opportunity to develop this ability. The

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teaching of history and geography has been largely a matter of giving a pupil facts, but now the teacher helps him to analyze problems in those subjects. Pupils in the elementary field can analyze historical and geographic situations surprisingly well. They can think, and the competent teacher directs them to reasoning and to organized thinking.

Useful and Interesting Information.—In the elementary school it is necessary to present useful and interesting information to the pupils. In the modern school this is done by placing in the hands of the pupils interesting books and magazines which are well illustrated. Visual aids and library material in charge of competent children's librarians are helpful to the boys and girls in securing useful information. Interesting classroom activities often stimulate the pupils to seek this useful, interesting information.

Children must possess necessary information regarding the world, and elementary education seeks to arouse initial interests and to develop necessary skills of acquiring this knowledge in these fields.

Skills in Fundamentals.—The demands of the modern school as well as of adult life require the use of certain fundamental habits and skills, the development of which must be begun in the elementary school. It is essential that all be able to express themselves in clear English. This generally requires careful training, which is begun in the elementary field. Oral expression is important, so that social intercourse may be possible. Training in clear, articulate speech, in expressive English, so essential in modern life, must have its beginnings here. Exercises to develop correct speech habits must be an essential aim, not only because a good

start is always necessary, but because such habits are likely to take definite shape during this period. Training in the use of correct written English, largely a matter of habit, must have its beginning in the elementary field. Children must hear correct English, read the best forms and then care enough to use good English. Habits in the correct use of written English may be quite well fixed during the elementary period. Refinements and enrichments of vocabularies are problems of both the elementary and the secondary fields.

Correct and efficient reading habits are also problems in both fields, but in the elementary school the development of essential reading habits must be begun, as they are an aid in school attainments. The secondary period may be too late to begin the formation of such habits. Pupils must know how to secure necessary information from the printed page. The ability to do this often requires a careful technique, which will be described in a later chapter.

Ability in the use of numbers must also be developed in the elementary school. The psychological time to train the pupils to understand numerical relations and to develop skill in using numbers is when the child first seems conscious of numbers, of counting objects. This time varies with different pupils, depending upon their interests, their experiences, and their ability. It is clearly a problem of the elementary education to begin training along this line. The modern elementary school, however, must limit the scope of its arithmetic work to the child's experiences and to practical situations which come up continually in the child's world. This requires the elimination of much of the obsolete material and impracticable number relations found in the

old school. This will be discussed more fully in the chapter upon Arithmetic.

Appreciation of Wholesome Interests.—This is an essential aim for each phase of education, but in the elementary field an important beginning must be made in the development of appreciations of the best things in life. The modern elementary school has many opportunities for arousing an interest in the world's best art, music, drama, literature, nature, and mechanical wonders. The chief aim in these fields is that of appreciation, of cultivating taste and attitude which will be of a permanent character. Careful guidance in these fields is of such a nature that critical analyses, technical instruction on the mechanical elements and the dissecting of literary masterpieces, and the classification of biological wonders are secondary to the cultivation of real interests in these fields. Well-planned excursions, with stimulating, well-directed discussions later, are invaluable in creating new interests in children. Visual aids with which the technique in the use of such material is thoroughly understood and used, are another valuable means of developing wholesome interests. The child with a worth-while hobby can well be stimulated and guided in such a manner that this interest may be somewhat permanent, and may provide for the proper use of leisure.

A Sound Body and Correct Health Habits.—Aside from the matter of good citizenship, possibly this is the most important aim in education, and in the elementary field the foundations may be carefully planned. While physical inheritance appears to be an important element in possessing a sound body, intelligent care and sensible living habits will develop the physique the

child has inherited. We have plenty of examples of a weakened childhood being developed into strong physical bodies in manhood and womanhood. Pupils enjoy biography, and such studies can well include the physical aspects of such lives. Happiness and success in life are very much dependent upon a sound body and correct health habits. Physical vigor affects the degree of success which individuals attain, as well as enjoyment of their leisure time. Continued illness or even an occasional absence from duty because of physical disability is a serious economic loss. Various studies made by our medical authorities seem to indicate one disabling illness per person each year in the United States. Men lose from seven to eight days each year because of illness, and women from eight to twelve days. Children lose approximately seven days out of the 180 days in the school year. Colds and bronchial troubles cause about fifty per cent of this disability.

The elementary school, therefore, has a real problem in developing sound bodies and right attitudes toward health habits. Here again we see our social contacts are interdependent. Illness among the teachers in one of our large cities is reported to cost that city \$300,000 annually, in addition to the educational loss, which can scarcely be estimated. Physical disability may affect the common welfare very seriously.

Wholesome Mental Habits and Attitudes.—There are few aims more essential than the aim of developing right mental habits and attitudes. Thinking affects actions, actions affect habits, and habits, character and happiness. Elementary education can do much to assure right mental conditions. One of the most essential mental conditions is that of poise and mental stabil-

ity. A person who is well poised mentally has a freedom of action which greatly assists him in any kind of emergency. He can weather any storm, can adjust himself to any unusual situation, and he secures unlimited confidence from others because of this mental stability. A type of mental condition which permits the individual to look upon the bright side of emergencies secures for him an ability to think through any situation. Mental stability which does not allow the individual to be emotionally disturbed at the slightest provocation is good for the person and for those with whom he associates. It avoids mental breakdowns and untold heartaches.

The willingness to work may be both a physical and a mental condition, though the mind quite largely rules the body. All should avoid laziness, both mental and physical. It is one of the most serious conditions into which an individual can easily slip if habits of aggressiveness are not developed in early childhood. The brilliant but erratic child must receive some valuable training during his childhood, to avoid disaster in adult life. It may be very easy for the brilliant child to slip into habits of laziness because of the ease with which he accomplishes school attainments. The habit of work and the mental attitude toward it must be developed in all children. An idle brain is so serious a problem that the school must take all the opportunities possible to interest the pupils in wholesome, aggressive activities, to dignify real effort, and to take pride in accomplishment and in being fully occupied in a profitable manner at all times.

Tolerance for others is another important mental attitude for all to possess. It is an essential element

in successful social intercourse. It makes living possible in all organized forms of society, and may settle our international misunderstandings. To recognize the rights of others, the good qualities of all, and to adjust ourselves to the rights and welfare of the majority, is a trait for the school to develop at an early age. This requires an optimistic attitude that will make it possible for the individual to recognize good qualities, to overlook undesirable traits, and to avoid a suspicious attitude toward others. We are so human we all have faults, but it is the mental attitude of optimism which should be developed in all pupils. It means an analysis of motives back of actions, and a determination of purposes. Motives may be misinterpreted because of suspicions and pessimisms. The exterior may not fully reveal desirable motives and qualities within.

Cheerfulness is another valuable mental habit which is the accompaniment of optimism and tolerance. We are likely to be cheerful if we are tolerant and optimistic, but cheerfulness is one of the most contagious of mental attitudes. When we radiate cheerfulness we generally secure a cheerful attitude from others.

A wholesome sense of humor is a most desirable trait to develop in early childhood. A child who sees the humor in situations has an attitude of mind which assists him in meeting situations because he probably has characterized them properly. When sufficiently cultivated in childhood, humor is likely to carry over into adult life, where it is a most valuable asset. Skill on the part of the teacher may develop this mental attitude into a valuable habit.

Another desirable and valuable mental attitude is that of a proper amount of self-confidence. There are

two extremes to avoid, superiority and inferiority complexes. Both are most undesirable, and at times difficult to analyze accurately. The outward appearance of too much self-confidence may be the result of a deep-seated feeling of inferiority along certain lines, and a desire to appear superior. The cause should be carefully analyzed, so that preventive measures may be taken in the elementary school. The child who thinks he is unable to accomplish an undertaking must first overcome that mental attitude before high attainments can be secured. Conversely, the child who feels that he can accomplish anything, who thinks he has unlimited ability in any field, may not be in the right mental attitude to study and to profit by skilful instruction. There must be a wholesome amount of self-confidence to secure the best results in school, to attain material success in adult life, and to be happy in social contacts. The elementary school recognizes this responsibility, and attempts to meet it fully and successfully.

The Foundation for Secondary Education.—The functions of the elementary school are highly important, but are largely fundamental in character, laying the foundation for higher education of some character. There are few, if any, so-called terminal courses in the elementary school. It is doubtful as to the possibility of completely developing habits and cultivating attitudes in the elementary field. Training in these habits and attitudes must be continued in the secondary field, where abilities may be more fully developed and attitudes more richly refined. But in the elementary field a very important beginning must be made to assure success in both fields. The elementary field has the child during some very impressionable years, when

definite functions must be realized and definite results secured. Each field in education has definite purposes which must be co-ordinated with the other fields, with some necessary overlapping to supplement the good results of each.

Suggestive Problems

1. William Smith is most un-social. What do we wish to learn about him and his environment to improve him?
2. Make a list of the most important reasons for providing socializing opportunities in the school.
3. The mother of Mary Jones, a second grade pupil, visits your room. At once Mary refuses to comply with the usual routine of the classroom, the mother apparently making excuses for her. How should you meet this situation?
4. Make a list of classroom and extra-classroom activities which will contribute to group living.
5. Make a list of life situations which may be brought into the classroom.
6. Make a list of desirable traits of character to develop in school.
7. Set up a suitable criteria by which to judge the efficiency of an elementary school.
8. You teach in a one-room rural school in a community in which the parents seem to require some assistance in realizing the aims of modern education. List the activities which may tend to produce the desired results.
9. Boraas¹ states that, "Lack of critical ability is a cause of failure to solve effectively some of our difficulties." Make a list of classroom activities you have seen which seem to substantiate this statement.
10. Miller and Hargreaves² make the following statement, "The attempt to indoctrinate the youth of our nation with a set of fixed ideas by a process of external disci-

¹ Boraas, Julius—*Teaching to Think*, Chap. VIII. Macmillan Co., 1922.

² Miller, H. L., and Hargreaves, R. T.—*The Self-Directed School*, Chap. III. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1925.

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pline under a system of unthinking obedience betrays inexcusable ignorance of American ideals." Prove this statement.

11. Does the increasing number of laws violate our conceptions of democracy?
12. List the values to you of playground supervision.

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CHAPTER III

CREATIVE EDUCATION

Preview Questions

1. Why should we develop the ability to use our leisure in a wholesome manner?
2. What has living in a dynamic world to do with our educational aims?
3. How may we discover latent interests and talents?
4. Name a few qualities a teacher should possess to develop creative activities in pupils.
5. How may we judge the effectiveness of creative activities?

Importance.—We live in a changing world, which has brought us more leisure and more luxuries. The working man has better working conditions, fewer hours at labor, more conveniences, and more leisure than formerly. Investigations of conditions indicate that from 1919 to 1927 the number of wage earners in manufacturing plants decreased 29 per cent, while the output of these plants was 46 per cent more. The total horse power in electrical driven motors is increasing rapidly. These studies show conclusively that more leisure will result as changes take place.

What will we all do with this increase in leisure time? Will we use it in more reading, more study of the truth, more appreciation of the best in life? Psychologists show us that we are never too old to learn, that between the ages of twenty-five and forty-five our ability to learn is superior to that in childhood. This ability to continue our reading, our study and our growth until late in life, and the increase in leisure will give us the

opportunity to explore, to open new avenues of activity. Latent abilities and desires to create may well bring us wholesome pleasures and satisfied hobbies.

Many things prove that our world is ever changing. We read of the \$100,000 Lindbergh Light being installed in Chicago, to cast its light from Buffalo on the east to Omaha on the west, and from Canada on the north to Memphis on the south. The research department in a well-known motor plant predicts that within ten years we will have an automobile costing less than \$1000, weighing less than 1000 pounds, consuming but one gallon of gasoline to eighty miles, and capable of going one hundred miles per hour in perfect safety. We read of sounding apparatus to test the presence of the Mediterranean fly in the citrus fruit, without destroying the fruit. An invention has just been announced, to indicate the presence of dangerous gases in automobile tunnels, by the flashing of electric signals. The builders of a new hotel announce wiring installation in all rooms for television. The railroads use sounding machines to test the presence of flaws in the steel rails. These machines automatically paint the rail at the place the flaw is detected. The end is not yet. We live in a wonderful age, with more leisure, with more luxuries, with more pleasures. The complexity of this new world will demand more experts, more leaders, and better thinkers.

A Changing School.—The changing world means a changing school, for adulthood must be prepared for in a different way. Problems of life itself must be brought into the classroom. This can be done through creative education. The old conception of education, consisting of drill upon skills and factual material, is

being supplemented by this new creative type of learning which helps a child to meet problems, to think, and to be self-reliant. Drill must continue, but we must make use of the urge for something new. We must develop power, right attitude and creative efforts as we drill upon fundamentals. During primitive times the youth were thrown upon their own resources as a necessary means for existence. The youth of today must be placed in challenging situations to stimulate their thinking and develop their initiative.

Doctor Osborn, in his book on *Creative Education*,¹ uses the following outline to show the difference between primitive and modern conditions:

MENTAL POWERS OF THE STONE AGE YOUTH

Observation, through sight, hearing, taste, touch, pressure—thermal sense; incessant use.

Imitation, gradually growing as the art of life elaborates; incessant growth in social tribes.

Creation, Invention, Initiative, Adaptation, Resourcefulness, in daily demand.

Reflection, Reason, Recognition of Cause and Effect dependent upon individual talent; applied first to struggle for existence.

Struggle for Existence intense, continuous.

Imagination constantly stimulated by direct contact with all phenomena of nature.

MENTAL POWERS OF THE MODERN YOUTH

Observation, very much dimmed and blunted through prolonged disuse and civilization; infrequent use.

Imitation, gradually increasing until it becomes an obsession, dominating life.

Creation, Invention, Initiative, Adaptation, Resourcefulness, confined to the relatively few gifted individuals; left out of daily life.

Reflection, Reason, Recognition of Cause and Effect confined to gifted few; less essential to struggle for existence.

Struggle for Existence rarely intense, intermittent.

Imagination largely dulled; conduct largely dependent on imagination of others.

¹ Osborn, H. F., Chap. II, p. 42. Scribners, 1927.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF CREATIVE EDUCATION

1. We must discover the latent powers, interests, and attitudes of pupils. What are the pupils thinking about, what are they interested in, what are their wholesome experiences outside of the classroom? When these are known, we are then ready to develop these latent abilities. Real, vital, and permanent learning is the result of experiences. These experiences may be some which the pupils have had outside the classrooms, or they may be those carefully planned and guided within the classroom. Creative education, therefore, is quite largely dependent upon the intelligent use of the experience of children.

We also recognize the fact that the pupils' growth is conditioned very largely by their interest in learning. When they are intensely interested in an activity, the learning becomes an incidental element. When an interest in some phase of school work has been aroused, it is likely to carry over to other types of work. The entire school programme is likely to become vital and interesting to the pupils whose interests have been thus aroused. This aim includes the discovering and development of the originality of pupils. Creative education seeks to guide and encourage all originality and initiative.

2. Education of this creative type comes through expression, rather than through repression. The old conception of repression must give way to the urge to create. In this principle we recognize the fact that the development of self-direction will be the outgrowth of vital, wholesome experiences which the pupils have had.

3. We must recognize the basic principle that all children have creative ability. The creative differences in children are determined by their interests, their backgrounds, and their innate power to create. We must develop all pupils, even the reticent child whose interests may be limited and whose social experiences have been meager. The latent interests are all likely to be discovered and developed by creative education.

4. The cultivation of the desire for truth and for honesty is also worth while. The investigation of a certain university concerning the bluffing tendencies among students is a terrible denunciation of the old type of education. In this study one hundred students took a special examination which included questions with no possible answers. They were asked to define fictitious words, to name the authors of fictitious books, to state from what play fictitious Shakespearian passages came. It was found that half of them bluffed on 46 per cent of the questions. Some of them bluffed on 81 per cent of the examinations. The same examination given to fifty-eight non-college men and women showed far less bluffing. This group bluffed only on 25 per cent of the questions. The creative type of education seeks to train pupils in truth and in honesty.

5. The cultivation of ability in social contacts is another important aim in creative education. As pupils plan and work together, they learn to exchange points of view, to share ideas, materials, and plans. Modern society demands ability and willingness to work together. It is not too much to hope that creative education will develop social abilities to the extent that international understandings will be made easier.

6. Training in cultural appreciation is another aim

of this type of education. As the pupils are encouraged to create, they will naturally develop an appreciation for what others have produced in art, in music, in the drama, and in mechanics.

7. The proper use of leisure time will also be more fully appreciated with creative education. Pupils will be interested in wholesome activities. Worth-while hobbies may find abundant opportunities to develop into life-long pleasures.

8. It is also apparent that creative abilities will be developed to the extent that a high type of vocational efficiency will result. The selection of the proper life work is one of the most important tasks confronting the youth. When the school conducts well-planned excursions, and brings interesting problems into the classroom, vocational choices may be made intelligently.

9. The elimination of unjust competition in the classroom is another important element. Each child proceeds somewhat along the line of his interest and up to the limit of his ability in creative education. Each competes with himself. The reduction of unnecessary failures because of improved and enlightened standards is quite possible. Some educators say do away with failing accelerating pupils, promoting them only on the chronological basis. In this way social contacts will be the best. We may, therefore, suit our instruction to the interests and abilities of each child.

This is sound psychologically, but is doubtful from an administrative viewpoint. Some educators advocate a pupil basis in place of a subject basis for promotion. By this they mean to establish standards of achievement in each subject for all grades. They, then, mean to have pupils attain these standards. This is also difficult

from an administrative standpoint as many pupils will never reach these standards. There should be, however, a shifting from a subject basis to a pupil basis, within administrative possibilities with each pupil working up to his limit. The pupils' interests and abilities should guide our standards of achievement. If we cannot eliminate failures, we can, at least, reduce them by a change in emphasis.

10. The elimination of superiority and inferiority complexes is another important aim of creative education. We should avoid labelling a child superior or inferior. He is aware of your labelling. Moreover, a child may excel in one subject and fall short in another. Creative education would bring a child's abilities to the surface.

11. The development of judgment and discrimination is another basic aim. Power to judge, to think, to discriminate, is an important aim in modern education. Creative instruction will tend to develop these worth-while abilities.

12. The elimination of adult standards in thinking is another important aim. The child's ability to think should be used as a basis in all instruction procedures. This should apply to our character education, as well as to our academic teaching. Creative education extends to character development. The child's ability to think and to judge right conduct under wise guidance is the basis for such plans.

13. Another basic principle in creative education is the satisfying of a universal urge to create. We all have the desire to create, to do something original, to follow an inclination, to produce something. This type of education gives abundant opportunity to fulfill this desire.

According to Doctor Osborn,¹ there are three main objects of the intellectual life. He says: "To think, to act, to create—these are our great impulses inherited from the far prehistoric past; these are the three main objectives in intellectual education of our American youth."

TECHNIQUES FOR CREATIVE EDUCATION

1. The most important technique or plan in developing creative education is to secure the right type of teacher. She must be a person with a real soul, a human individual who has a real love for children, fully as conscious of their interests, enthusiasms and individualities as of their abilities in the various subjects. She is the friend, counsellor and guide of the pupils. She is capable of securing their confidences and of making learning an interesting and enjoyable adventure. This teacher knows life, appreciates the best in it, and is able to assist the pupils in interpreting it. She is a student, a co-worker with boys and girls, a dynamic, growing, developing individual. Such a teacher is not annoyed by noise and questions when properly directed. She is pleasant in personality. She never reaches that stage of "vinegarish spinsterhood,"² which results in the pupils' feeling that all teachers and most adults are the natural enemies of children. She has her nervous force well under control. She enters the classroom physically, mentally, and spiritually ready for interesting contacts with boys and girls.

Doctor Osborn³ speaks of the joy he has received as

¹ Osborn, H. F., *Creative Education*, Chap. I. Scribners, 1927.

² From an editorial in the *Oakland Tribune*.

³ Osborn, H. F., *Creative Education*, Chap. I. Scribners, 1927.

a student with students for fifty years, how he has progressed as they developed.

The teacher of creative education knows the value of this type of instruction, studies how best to secure it with each pupil, and knows when to command good work and conscientious effort. She realizes that in the progressive school the teacher is no longer the one to cram pupils with factual material and rules, but she is a developer of boys and girls.

2. The second technique is that of discovering the interests, the desires and the social environment of the pupils. This is the basis for much of the planning and the procedures in creative education. We must capitalize these interests.

3. Another important technique is the creating of an interesting classroom atmosphere which pupils enjoy, where they want to bring their pets, their problems and their interests. It is an interesting workshop where a variety of enjoyable work is done under the wise and sympathetic guidance of the teacher.

4. All formal conditions should be done away with. We must have equipment which can be moved about for a variety of purposes. Construction material should be provided in great variety. Much of this material can be secured at small cost, such as packing cases, nails, cardboard, and paper. Plants and flowers should be grown by the pupils in abundance. Pets, such as singing canaries, are interesting to pupils, especially in the lower grades. In some schools activities rooms or alcoves are provided. In other schools¹ where the standardized classroom is small, pupils' desks are placed together in pairs of rows, to provide sufficient space for activities.

¹ Oakland Public Schools, Oakland, California, for example.

5. Flexible programmes are valuable in creative education. Careful plans are essential, but these should be varied to suit emergencies which arise. Under wise guidance, an occasional "free period" or self-directed hour is often advisable. During these periods the pupils are free to choose their activities, and the teacher has a splendid opportunity to study and to guide them.

6. Pupil assistance and participation in the routine management of the classroom also develops the creative thinking of pupils. It also tends to arouse mutual interests and understanding among the pupils and between the teacher and the pupils.

7. Parental understanding, sympathy and support should be secured to realize the greatest benefits in creative education. The parents must realize that the old factual acquiring drill-school still exists, but is supplemented by creative activities. The college professor who complained that he sent his daughter to high school to learn *Latin*, but she was taught to carve soap, did not understand the true situation. The girl was getting all the Latin he wanted her to have (possibly more than she wanted), and at the same time, through constructive activities, perhaps the Latin itself was being made wonderfully interesting to her. Doubtless this girl's school day was brightened by creative opportunities to the extent that drill periods were less burdensome and more vitalized. Parents are much interested in the education of their children, and are for the most part quite ready to accept progressive methods.

EXAMPLES OF CREATIVE ACTIVITIES

1. English offers one of the greatest opportunities for developing the creative tendencies of pupils. While

correct form in written English is an essential aim, free, spontaneous expression precedes it in the progressive school. Examples of free expression of pupils will be given in the chapter on English Expression.

2. Art offers another opportunity to develop creative activities and appreciation. Here again technical instruction is necessary, but much of it should come after the child has tried to express himself. Much of the art work should consist of expressing some idea which is the pupil's own. Social studies offer splendid opportunities for art expression. Pupils often enjoy drawing certain dramatic scenes in history, such as the covered wagons episodes. Community or group projects, with each pupil or group of pupils feeling responsible for definite parts, afford a splendid creative art activity.

In English an example of creative tendencies is seen in the use of the poem, "The Elephant's Swing," in a third grade. The poem was first read to the pupils, with a discussion about swings, ways of swinging, and flowers. This was followed by dramatization of poses. Suggestions were made for drawing such poses, as sitting in swings, bending forward, neck shortened, etc. This was followed by such questions as these, "What do you plan to do? Have you decided which position you are going to use? Miss Eby¹ then made suggestions to the individual pupils while they worked. These suggestions encouraged the pupils and gave them technical information when necessary. Some of her comments were:

1. "I hope the flowers will be *very* pretty."
2. "I hope those webs are going to be lovely, fine ones."
3. "See how *easy* it is going to be."

¹ A lesson by Miss Frances E. Eby, Supervisor of Art, Oakland Public Schools.

4. "Oh, what pretty flowers!"
"It must be in the country."
5. "Try your own arms, then you'll see how his arms go."
6. "You're having trouble? Let's get this boy to sit on the desk. See, his knees are right against his blouse."
7. "I *know* he is a brownie, but does he have to wear brown?"
8. "What color is his hair? Better give him some!"
9. "I *hope* he has eyes, and a nose, and a mouth."
10. "What do you want him to do? Come and feel *how* it goes. See how the legs go!"
11. "Fine!" but what are you going to do with the rest of this paper?"
12. "Suppose *you* be our brownie. See how his knees go?"
13. "You show me the picture in *your mind* and I'll show you what is in my mind."

3. Music is another activity for creative expression and appreciation. Pupils enjoy music most when they participate in the orchestras and glee clubs. Children possess rhythm which can be developed at a very young age. Kindergarten and first grade pupils can make their own instruments for their rhythmic orchestra, and even choose one of their number as leader. In some cases fourth, fifth and sixth grade pupils can be encouraged to make more complicated instruments, which may be loaned to the lower grades. Some of these "instruments" are glasses, marimbas, drums, rattles, ocarinas, flageolets, psalteries, tambourines, pipes-of-Pan, trumpets, violins, cellos, and flutes. Many of them can be constructed by the use of cigar boxes, dry boards, gourds, butter tubs, hollow reeds, bottles, paper and combs. Most of these rhythmic instruments can be purchased, although the construction of them by the pupils themselves constitutes a valuable exercise in handwork, and is likely to arouse many genuine inter-

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ests. Self-expression in rhythm is interesting and valuable.

4. Physical education is another school subject in which creative tendencies can be developed. Health habits can best be developed when the pupils participate in the formation of simple health rules, and are thrown upon their own responsibilities in observing them. Play-ground activities present splendid opportunities to develop initiative, judgment, discrimination, and fair play.

5. Character education lends itself splendidly to creative education. We no longer attempt to develop character by rules, but by inculcating a real desire to function efficiently as a citizen in the school and in the community.

The studies made by Doctor Germaine and Mrs. Germaine in Missouri are illustrative of this tendency in character education.¹ Parents and pupils assisted in the formation of codes of ethical conduct, then proceeded to set up the means of attaining these goals. Morgan, in his high school studies,² sets up life situations for the pupils to judge as to best practices. The pupils answer ten to fifteen questions concerning these situations. Class discussion then takes place and the pupils again answer these same questions. "Studies in Conduct"³ is another attempt to develop discrimination and judgment regarding right conduct.

¹ Germaine and Germaine. *Character Education*. Silver Burdett & Co., 1929.

² Morgan, De Witt S. *Case Studies for Classes in Civics*. Laidlaw Bros., 1928.

³ Hague, Elizabeth F., Chalmers, Mary, and Kelly, Marie A. *Studies in Conduct*. University Publishing Co., 1928.

CRITERIA FOR JUDGING EFFECTIVENESS OF CREATIVE EDUCATION

It is most essential that the school set up certain definite criteria by which the effectiveness of its procedures may be judged. This is especially necessary in creative education, where the spontaneity of the pupils is used as much of the basis for the procedures. We must have definite plans for our work, then we must evaluate our undertakings. What have we accomplished? How does it contribute toward the realization of our major school objectives? Have certain aims in subject matter been attained? These are some of the questions we must ask ourselves regarding our classroom plans. The following criteria may serve as a basis for evaluating creative types of education:

1. Does the activity have real educative value?
2. What skills, habits, and attitudes were further developed?
3. Does it fully utilize the interests and social background of the pupils?
4. Does it have a "carry-over" value?
5. Does it sufficiently provide for the growth of all pupils?
6. Is this activity of a "unit" nature with many school subjects represented?
7. Does it show the originality, thought, and activity of the pupils themselves?
8. Does it stimulate drill and the acquisition of factual material?
9. Does it enrich the pupil's experiences?
10. Was the interest of all sustained throughout the activity?

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11. Was subject matter brought in naturally?

Conclusion.—Creative effort is a basic principle which should characterize many school subjects. Addison once said, "What sculpture is to marble, education is to the human soul." This quotation may be revised to fit our particular problem: "What sculpture is to marble, *creative* education is to the human soul."

Suggestive Problems

1. Mr. Jones complains that creative activities are valueless, that he wants his child drilled as he was. How would you approach him?
2. Outline a plan for socializing a fifth grade.
3. Explain how the school may contribute to the development of personality.
4. Make a list of the ways in which a thoughtless person might exploit children.
5. Outline a plan for developing an appreciation of art; of music.
6. Make a list of suitable activities for enriching the work for the accelerated pupils in a fifth or sixth grade.
7. Outline a unit plan to occupy approximately a month's time in which several school subjects are brought in naturally.
8. Many educators feel that proper guidance and the development of right attitudes are more effective in character-training than formulized lessons on morals. Analyze your own thinking in this respect.
9. Evaluate the following statement by Kilpatrick, "We must free our children to think for themselves."¹

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CHAPTER IV

EFFICIENT CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Preview Questions

1. Is it possible to be firm and yet pleasant with pupils?
2. How can you justify the statement, "Discipline comes from within, guidance from without."
3. What are the advantages of efficient classroom management?
4. How may the teacher's voice contribute to her success in classroom management?
5. What types of information should you know concerning your pupils?

Its Importance.—Effective and efficient classroom management is indispensable. Only in this way may pupils receive proper training and may their instruction be conducted on high levels. The important reasons for efficient management may be classified under the following headings:

1. The establishment of right habits and attitudes.
2. The securing of a high quality of attainment because of good working conditions.
3. The relieving of the teacher from a certain amount of routine that she may function in more important duties.
4. The assuring of success by the teacher because all routine items of management are carefully provided for. This contributes largely to her success.

Habits and Attitudes.—Many habits and attitudes can best be developed when classroom conditions bring about efficient work and effective thinking. The school

seeks to establish right work habits. Efficient classroom management provides an effective opportunity to train the pupils in such habits. The modern school seeks to secure a quiet, orderly classroom by having the pupils participate in all routine. This practice produces a pleasant yet quiet place and gives the pupils valuable training in self-responsibility.

Good Working Conditions.—The most efficient work is secured when the working conditions are conducive to efficiency. There must be atmosphere for study, where children can work and take pride in accomplishment. The classroom need not necessarily be absolutely quiet as we once thought it should be, yet the noise should be of a working type without undue confusion. There must be good housekeeping, everything in its place, with some one to look after the routine procedures efficiently. In an efficient classroom the pupils are happy, industrious, neat and orderly, co-operative with the urge for good conduct coming from the pupils themselves.

Teacher Relief for Important Duties.—The teacher must be relieved from petty routine duties, to function to the best advantage in directing the pupils' activities. So much is demanded of the teacher in instruction, in bookkeeping and in extra-classroom duties, that her classroom management must be thoughtfully routinized to accomplish the highest purpose of teaching.

Effective Classroom Management and Success.—The teacher's success, as we have just said, is largely dependent upon routinizing her classroom management. She must plan it carefully. This is especially true with the new teacher, who finds management one of her first serious problems. Investigations show conclusively

that these management problems are so serious that failure is imminent during the first year of teaching experience. Vorheis in a study¹ found that the principals in studying the problems of their new teachers discovered that 73 per cent of the difficulties were in classroom management and organization. When he investigated the difficulties as analyzed by these new teachers themselves, he found that 96 per cent of them said that classroom management and organization was their major problem.

Lettler made an extensive study by the questionnaire method as to why teachers fail, and received 281 replies. His findings follow:

"Type 1. *Lack of control over the technique of teaching.*

The teacher may be totally ignorant of the science of teaching or unable to apply its principles. She does not know how to teach.

Type 2. *Lack of ability to maintain order and discipline.*

The teacher fails to command attention. The room is in confusion.

Type 3. *Lack of mastery of subject matter.*

The teacher does not know her subject. This difficulty appears more frequently on the high-school level.

Type 4. *Lack of intelligence.*

The teacher lacks native ability to cope with the situation.

Type 5. *Lack of effort.*

Either because of lack of physical energy or constitutional dislike for work, the teacher fails. She fails to make the necessary preparation; she fails to care for routine matters; she fails to put forth the effort necessary for success.

Type 6. *Lack of initiative.*

The teacher does everything that she is told to do but does nothing more. She is entirely incapable of acting upon abstract principles.

¹ Vorheis, C. R., *Helping the New Teacher*, an unpublished study of conditions by an Oakland principal.

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Type 7. *Lack of adaptability.*

The teacher fails to adapt herself to the principal, the other teachers, the community, or the pupils. She is a potential trouble-maker. She may be good enough in her classroom, but she fails to establish proper relations with the rest of the building. She is individualistic, generally disgruntled, and antagonistic.

Type 8. *Lack of common sense.*

The teacher fails to size up the situation. She lacks the good judgment to see that certain things are out of place. She moves either too rapidly or too slowly. She is always in difficulties.

Type 9. *Lack of physical ability.*

The teacher is in ill health, acknowledged or concealed. She may be nervous, irritable, or otherwise disagreeable. She may lack the physical energy to do good work.

Type 10. *Lack of standards.*

The teacher does not know what is expected of her. She is perfectly capable, but does not know prevailing standards of teaching.

Type 11. *Lack of ability to carry on.*

The teacher becomes discouraged at the attitude of the principal, poor work of pupils, etc. She looks continually for new and better pastures.

Type 12. *Lack of singleness of purpose.*

The teacher has too many outside interests—real estate, family, social obligations, etc. She is not willing to share with others the many extra burdens and assignments of the school.

Type 13. *Lack of sympathetic understanding of pupils.*

The teacher fails to get the pupils' point of view. She has the wrong attitude. She has lost all recollections of the pleasures, wishes, and hopes of childhood. She is out of sympathy with those things that children love and cherish most.

Type 14. *Lack of social background.*

The teacher fails because of a limited social background. The community and the children are rich in social experience and are aware of the difference. The children laugh at her.

Type 15. *Lack of knowledge of what pupils can do.*

The teacher does not know what to expect of pupils. She has no notion of difficulty levels. She does not know what is difficult to the child. She lacks standards of judgment.

Type 16. *Lack of personality.*

The teacher lacks force—spiritual, social, and physical. She fails to radiate life and enthusiasm.

Type 17. *Lack of moral standards.*

The teacher is not honest with herself and with other teachers. She fails to show moral stamina in her many personal relationships about the school.”¹

Securing Efficient Classroom Conditions.—It is not enough for us to realize the importance of efficient classroom management. We must know how to secure it by developing an effective technique which will make it possible. Possibly the most important element for the teacher to consider first is that of pupil morale. When the attitude of the pupils is of the right kind, smooth, helpful and happy conditions are likely to result. How may such a situation be realized? The teacher’s attitude and relationship toward the pupils is of primary importance. She should be cheerful and optimistic in spite of disheartening conditions. The teacher with a ready smile (the million-dollar smile), with a pleasing countenance, is very likely to get a hearty response and a type of co-operation which will bring a splendid atmosphere to the classroom. When such a relationship is established the proper kind of morale is secured and maintained.

The teacher who is neat and attractive in appearance possesses an asset which helps to secure the right classroom atmosphere. Pupils are susceptible to an attrac-

¹ Lettler, Sherman, “Why Teachers Fail,” *Home and School Education*, Vol. 33, March, 1914, p. 255.

tive appearance. So are we all. Industry is looking to the dress of its salesmen knowing the importance of pleasing appearance. In the classroom where the teacher and the pupils are together, at least five hours each day, the teacher owes it to them to appear at her best. We are most likely to have confidence in the individual whose personal appearance is pleasing. So is this true with children. The teacher can well afford to give this matter thoughtful consideration. Neatness is possible for all, and an occasional change of attire is very pleasing to the pupils. Comments among pupils regarding their teachers are often directed toward their personal appearance. Pupils have been heard to remark that they did wish their teacher had more than one dress—that they wished she would be up-to-date.

Poise is another important quality which is essential in all phases of leadership. The leader of others must have command of himself, especially in the classroom, where the problems are complex and the personalities varied. The teacher who has poise at all times commands respect and produces an atmosphere which is highly desirable in influencing boys and girls.

A pleasing voice influences children more than is realized. The human voice is somewhat of an index to character. Few elements will establish the teacher with the pupils more securely than a fine, well-modulated voice. A pleasing voice is as necessary as the teacher's diction and her knowledge of subject matter. It is of so much importance that adequate training of the voice can well be included in all teacher training curricula. It is often an item for consideration in teacher rating. Sometimes a teacher in her enthusiasm

to do thorough work, and in her effort to have every point understood by all, allows her voice to go higher and higher. This habit may bring about a high-pitched, disagreeable voice which eventually will create confusion in the classroom. The quality of the teacher's voice, therefore, often determines the type of pupil morale and the degree of success in efficient classroom management.

Positive in place of negative suggestions will develop the pupils in the desirable character traits. Expression rather than repression is a psychological principle which is quite universally accepted in the modern school programme. True, permanent growth comes when pupils do constructive, independent thinking under wise, sympathetic guidance. To have something to do is of more importance than to be continually told what not to do. Some negative requests may put new ideas of the wrong type into the minds of some pupils. These negative commands may also develop a spirit of antagonism among some pupils. It is much better to face the child in the right direction than to correct him for wrong tendencies.

The teacher who can bring a class to value good conduct and good work is assured a happy success. When she once brings this situation about, the major problems in teaching are effectively and easily realized. We can all recall certain classrooms in which the pupil who annoyed the teacher was the hero in the eyes of the other pupils. We can recall also other classrooms in which the annoying pupil was somewhat ostracized by the others, and in some cases the boys took matters into their own hands outside of the classroom most effectively.

Respect for the pupils' point of view and a high regard for fair play are elements which even young pupils recognize quite readily. This does not mean license, chaos or confusion, but merely establishing right attitudes which secure the proper kind of public sentiment.

All physical conditions which are important aspects in efficient classroom management must receive careful attention. The light should be of the right quality, not too bright nor too dim. Natural lighting facilities are preferable to artificial in most situations. Bright sunlight shining on highly varnished desks or upon books and papers which the pupils are using not only injures the eyesight, but will often produce a physical condition which will lessen efficient work and add to the management problems. When artificial lighting is used, care must be exercised to regulate it properly. During cloudy or changeable weather the lights must be turned off and on at the right time, to avoid eyestrain. Blackboard assignments should be large, legible, and clear.

The ventilation, unless regulated automatically, must be carefully studied. The teacher must know the type of ventilation used in the classroom, and plan accordingly.

The proper seating of pupils is of such importance that the teacher should begin a study of it the first day, and continue it until conditions are as near correct as it is possible to have them. Many educators feel that movable furniture should be provided for every classroom. Such furniture constitutes standard equipment in many kindergartens and primary classrooms. Seats should be secured in several sizes to fit the various pupils. In classrooms using the immovable type of furniture, some adjustable desks are desirable. Some

school systems provide two rows of the adjustable style for every classroom in the elementary schools.

The proper seating of the pupils is a management problem as well as a physical one. Most teachers plan so to seat the pupils that they can work to the best advantage. Pupils should be so trained that they can work under any conditions and with any type of neighbors. This is an ideal, however, which can not always be realized. The teacher must consider how to seat the pupils in reference to one another, that efficient work can be accomplished and good work habits can be developed.

Rest periods and change of occupation are necessary in many classrooms. Pupils as well as adults often reach fatigue conditions earlier than is anticipated. The teacher must so plan her work that rest and change are sufficiently provided for. She must then observe the pupils carefully to note when rest or change is necessary.

An attractive classroom brings about good work, a high type of pupil morale, fine sentiment, and school interest. Pupils are glad to help keep their room attractive. Blackboard work of a more or less permanent nature should be neat, legible, and pleasing to the eye. Blackboards can be used and yet be kept clean and neat. Monitors for the blackboards may be appointed each week.

The arrangement of all movable furniture should be artistic and have utilitarian values. Flowers, pictures, posters, and the display of pupils' work should be so placed that there is artistic arrangement. School supplies such as books, paper and construction material should be conveniently placed and yet should not give a disorderly appearance to the classroom. In so far as

attractiveness is concerned, the classroom should be a place where work is done, and yet a place where pupils are attracted and taught to be orderly.

Systematic procedures which are flexible and do not cramp efficiency and initiative should be in vogue at all times. It is an excellent plan to have a place for everything and to train the pupils to keep all equipment and supplies in an orderly manner. The example which the teacher sets in the care of her own desk influences the pupils' orderliness. The pupils may well be trained to be good housekeepers with their own desks and with everything in the classroom. Reference material, visual aids, and the surplus supply of stationery should be systematically provided by the teacher. It should always be on hand when needed. This requires advanced planning by the teacher. Planning not only saves her time and that of the pupils, but it trains the pupils in systematic procedures. This material should be arranged in an orderly manner and should be available without confusion and loss of time. Maps, for example, should be cared for systematically to save time and to preserve this equipment. When on rollers the maps should be rolled up and down carefully. A handy place should be found for them.

Outer wraps should be cared for in such a manner that each pupil has a regular place for his things and is trained to look after them carefully. Many teachers find it a help to assign a definite hook in the cloak-room to each pupil. This will often avoid much of the confusion in the cloak-room.

Fire drills must be carefully planned to assure efficiency. Pupils in each classroom should know which exits to use and how to proceed in an orderly manner.

Quiet and absolute control are far more essential than a record for speed. Fire marshals in making periodical inspections should realize this fully. Loss of lives in school fires are attributed to panics more than to lack of speed. To avoid panics and to be certain of absolute control, teachers often find it advantageous to go ahead of their pupils. This will avoid the tendency to run on the stairs, and will do away with confusion. When teachers precede their classes, they may appoint a rear guard, whose duty it is to see that all pupils are in the line of march during the fire drill. When the teacher sees this reliable pupil in the rear, she knows that all her pupils are with her. Every teacher wishes to prevent a catastrophe, which often may be done by carefully planned fire drills.

The problem of getting the pupils in and out of the building often causes the new teacher considerable concern. Many things must be kept in mind. Her class must be orderly. She must be able to control it with a strong hand in an emergency. If she has the respect of her class, she can do this. The plans which each teacher uses will often be influenced by the plans used in other classrooms in the same school building. It is often best to have some uniformity among adjacent classrooms in the matter of the passing in and out by pupils. At one time a somewhat military procedure with no talking of any kind, with the boys holding their caps at the chests, was thought to be correct. This required considerable supervision and many punishments for failure to comply with all rigid requirements. It also took more time than seemed justifiable to some teachers, as all pupils assembled in line and then waited for the tardy ones and for the lines ahead to start the

parade. The other extreme is confusion, noise, running, playing, and other forms of activities through the halls, in the cloak rooms, and the classrooms. Many teachers attempt a happy medium, in which the pupils come in quietly but naturally, either without lines or with a somewhat informal type of lines. The plan which each teacher uses will depend somewhat upon the plan of the teachers in nearby rooms, the nature of the building, and the type of pupils. The ideal way is naturalness without rigid supervision. The teacher should plan the passing of the pupils to approach this ideal as nearly as possible.

A very essential element in good classroom management is the careful planning of all lessons and pupil activities. While these plans should be flexible, the teacher should as much as possible think through the entire semester's work in each subject before the term's work begins. Then she should plan for each month, and last, for each day. These plans will have to be varied.

The teacher should always have her day's work well planned. She should always know what should be done next. The pupils will soon get the spirit of efficient work, and the teacher is very likely to be the master of any situation. It makes her day easier than it otherwise would be. It makes her confident of success.

These plans should include intelligent thinking as to what each child should do during his study or work period. This requires stimulating, thoughtful assignments. Needed material must be available for the pupils for the entire period. The pupils should always have plenty to do and should want to do it. This is much of the secret of classroom management. It is

well for the teacher to be free to work with the pupils during this work period. She thus can know the individual difficulties of the pupils and can assist them at the time they need it. This is often impossible, but her work should be so planned that frequently she can work with them during this study period.

Most teachers have at least two classes in their rooms. This plan requires a study period for one group while she gives her attention to the other group in the form of the recitation. This necessitates planning work and material which will keep the group studying fully occupied for the entire period. It is essential that the teacher make sure of this condition before turning her attention to the other group. It is often best to give her entire attention to one group at a time.

The planning of the recitation is of primary importance, and it will be more fully discussed in the chapter on The Recitation. However, the teacher's systematic plans should include planning a stimulating, worth-while recitation which should guide the pupils in constructive thinking and to further study.

Knowledge of Pupils.—It is highly important that the teacher know the pupils as early in the term as possible. This knowledge has different aspects and develops as the term progresses. It is essential to know the name of each pupil early in the term. This knowledge establishes a spirit of friendliness between teacher and pupil. The skillful teacher often has some conception of who the active pupils are, the first day of school. Their names should be learned the first or second day, so they may be called by name and be directed in their activities. Possibly all names can be known during the first week. This will greatly assist the teacher in her classroom management and instruction problems.

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There are many other types of information concerning the pupils which the teacher should study. It is well to know their interests, that right relationships may be established early and teaching success enhanced. The abilities and mental capacities of the pupils are difficult to know in one term, even by experienced teachers, yet the teacher should begin such a study early, the first day if possible. This can well be done by some types of review exercises which relate to the work of the preceding grades.

The teacher must realize the distinction between mental capacity and achievement in subject matter. While there is a high correlation between the two in the elementary field, there are other factors influencing achievement besides mental capacity. Some of these factors are application, educational background, interest, previous training in subject matter and in study habits, health, and regular attendance. The teacher should get the necessary data as to mental capacity by means of standardized intelligence tests. Such data in many schools is now available when the teacher begins her work with new pupils. This data is a valuable guide to the teacher in determining the degree of achievement which each pupil should attain. There may also be records of the pupils' achievement in the standardized subject-matter tests. However, the teacher can secure quite easily the pupils' skills and knowledge in subject matter by exercises which she herself devises. Such information when secured early in the term assists the teacher in planning her initial instruction with the class and with individual pupils.

The social inclinations and abilities of the pupils should be studied also, as such abilities influence plans

of classroom and playground management. The modern school attempts to develop proper social abilities as an aid in all school procedures and in adult life. The child who cannot play with other children is likely to be unhappy and unable to participate properly in many activities. Without this ability, he is also likely to be unhappy and possibly unsuccessful in adult life. In a San Francisco school a brilliant sixth grade boy who spent his recess time in reading was called a dumbbell by the other boys, because of unsocial tendencies and lack of skill in playground games. This boy had a wise teacher and principal who worked for his playground participation through the other boys. These boys did not want him, and it required considerable skill to have them include him in their games. The day he made a home run on the baseball diamond very likely marked a real stepping stone in the boy's social development. He was from then on a boy among boys, no longer a social dumbbell. It is quite possible that he will be a man among men, happy and successful in adult life.

Social attitudes and tendencies must be studied carefully by the teacher. She should know which pupils have leadership qualities and which have only following tendencies. Much can be accomplished by the skillful direction of the leaders. Those who are not leaders should be given opportunities to develop such abilities. Students with inferiority complexes and those with superiority attitudes should be definitely known, so that development and guidance may be along the right lines.

Such studies of individual pupils will usually reveal problem cases in every classroom. The problem child requires the highest degree of skill in management, in guidance, and in development. The problem children

may be classified under the following headings: those who present mental problems; those who present the physical problems; those who present emotional problems (the social misfit). All of these types should be carefully studied by the teacher, with the assistance of whatever expert advice she can secure.

There are three steps in analyzing problem cases. First, find out who they are; second, have them diagnosed and analyzed; and third, correct or attempt to correct their problems with intelligence and sympathy. The first step is comparatively easy, the second more difficult, and the third a wise man's problem.

The mental problems fall into two divisions, the brilliant and the dull types. In many respects, the former is the more difficult of the two. He may have very poor study habits because of lack of sufficiently difficult tasks to stimulate him up to his capacity. When he does not work up to his capacity, little progress will result generally. He may have developed a very superior attitude which will be extremely detrimental to him in school and throughout life. With a wide range of abilities and interests which we find in most classrooms his case is difficult. Advancing him more rapidly than his classmates may solve the problem in so far as his mental development is concerned, but it may produce serious social problems. Accelerating or "skipping" such pupils has its limitations. It is very doubtful if brilliant pupils should be advanced more rapidly through the elementary school than one year. Special assignments, outside collateral and pleasure reading, group and individual assignments may help the teacher in meeting this problem.

The dull, slow pupil requires a high type of intel-

ligent planning and a world of patience, sympathy, and mutual understanding in guiding his school work. If his mental capacity places him in the dull group (somewhat below 80 to 85 in intelligence quotient), the classroom for the average pupil is not likely to provide the opportunities which he needs. The teacher of the ordinary classroom has so many complex problems, and the training of this pupil requires such specialized work, that both she and the pupil are fortunate indeed if the school has a special classroom with the needed instruction and equipment for him. He needs more industrial work and a very much modified academic programme.

The physically handicapped child with normal mental capacity may not present any problem in so far as academic progress is concerned. He may, however, present real problems of social adjustment, of adequate equipment and special teachers, to overcome his physical handicap, that his mentality may develop normally. The crippled, the hard-of-hearing, the semi-sighted, the blind, the deaf children, and those requiring speech correction, all present problems often too difficult and too specialized and complex for the teacher whose training is of the general type, and who has a classroom of average pupils to instruct. Here, again, the teacher and the pupils are fortunate when special instruction can be provided elsewhere for most of these pupils. The child may present a problem because of a general health condition or because of high strung nerves, bad teeth, improper breathing, or poor digestion. The teacher should seek the help of the nurse and work with her to improve all physical conditions.

The pupils presenting problems of social maladjustment require definite planning by the wise and sym-

pathetic teacher. This type may have had the wrong training at home. It is easy for the school to shift the responsibility and the blame, but the home may present problems which have handicapped sympathetic mothers and fathers. In all problem cases the co-operation of the home is needed, but possibly more so in the matter of the social misfit than with any other type. This child may be dishonest, irresponsible, careless, over-conscientious, generally troublesome, unsocial or a serious sex problem.

Possibly one of the most difficult types to influence is the pampered child. This child often feels abused, and he may be supported in this feeling at home. He may think that other pupils are favored to his disadvantage. The parents of this type often imagine that their child is superior to the other children. This feeling is ridiculous and constitutes a very serious handicap in all phases of instruction. The mother who informed a certain superintendent that her child was related to the President of the United States and that the teacher and principal did not know how to handle such children, placed herself and her child in a ridiculous situation. Parents of pampered children and the children themselves must be made to understand the handicap which they have, and that they and not the teacher will suffer throughout life unless the condition is improved. The teacher should carefully and as accurately as possible diagnose these cases and seek adequate remedial measures for improvement.

Pupil Participation.—Possibly one of the most effective means of securing a high type of morale among the pupils is to administer classroom routine so that the pupils have an important part in details and in planning

certain phases of procedure. The skillful teacher seeks to secure an attitude which helps in all plans. The pupils who constantly plan to improve conditions in the classroom constitute a very effective assistance to the teacher and to the other pupils, and at the same time they are receiving valuable training for democratic citizenship. The assignment of special monitorial duties for the pupils not only relieves the teacher for more important duties, but provides an opportunity for the pupils to feel a certain sense of responsibility and pride in all classroom plans. Such pupils feel that the classroom is theirs, that they contribute to smooth-working, successful conditions. A classroom club often assists in a valuable manner. These clubs often plan certain routine details, under the wise leadership of the teacher. Monitors who feel responsible for good ventilation, who look after blackboards and erasers, who distribute paper and other material, who open and close doors, who place chairs for visitors, etc., render valuable assistance and receive effective training in self-reliance and in altruism. The monitorial service must be managed skillfully, however, to avoid misunderstandings. The teacher should avoid having any child feel that he must do a certain task because he was asked to perform it. The child should not go home and complain that he had to clean the dirty blackboards and erasers. Such tasks must be placed upon a service basis where the pupils feel they have been honored. Pupil participation skillfully planned and carefully administered will generally produce a fine spirit in the classroom.

Good Attendance.—The training of pupils requires regular and punctual attendance so that no work is missed and so that they do not feel left out. The

modern school is so interesting to pupils that the problem of regular attendance is becoming more and more negligible. When the pupils wish to attend school regularly, the parents will often arrange home situations in such a manner that attendance is possible every day in the school year when the child is physically able to attend. Punctual attendance is more difficult to secure. Many parents, because of early training, feel that it is far worse for a child to be late than to be absent, and hence will instruct the child to return home when he sees he will be late. The school must seek to train these pupils to feel that it is better to miss a few minutes than a half day of school.

By harsh treatment tardiness can be reduced and practically eliminated, but it will increase the absences, as pupils will remain away rather than face such harshness. Rules will often embarrass the teacher and the pupils, and will not apply to the habitual cases for whom the rules were intended. For example, a rule that all must remain after school for tardiness may inflict punishment upon the over-conscientious child who is blameless. The spirit of responsibility in punctuality should be developed. The average home is in a hurry in the morning. It often has a clock which has stopped or needs regulating. In some cases the child must run to the store for coffee or milk forgotten the day before. All of these matters cause tardiness. The pupil must be trained to feel that punctuality is essential in school and in life, that business and social appointments are obligations which all must meet promptly. No one must be kept waiting if at all possible to prevent it. Parents and children must know that training is the essential phase of the question, and not school records.

The "Leaving the Room" Problem.—This is a problem which often confuses the inexperienced teacher and occasionally confronts the experienced teacher. It must be met frankly and intelligently. Rules will often confuse the problem and embarrass all concerned. Mutual understandings, regularities and the observance of health habits should be considered. The health of the pupils must be as definitely in mind as efficient classroom procedures. The teacher should attempt to secure a middle ground between forbidding the pupils ever going to the toilets during a school session and disregarding the practice altogether, so that no regularity is in evidence. The teacher is on safe ground always to permit a child to go to the toilet when he indicates the necessity. It is very doubtful as to the wisdom of having a pupil remain after school to make up the time that is lost or to prove his sincerity in making the request.

With this in mind, what can the teacher do to prevent an extensive abuse of this privilege? The first thing may be a frank talk with the pupils as to the purposes of the intermission and the proper use of the toilets before school. Then there should be supervision to put such procedures into practice. Pupils who make a practice of going to the toilets during school hours should be talked with frankly and without reproof when it is found that they are in good faith.

There are several causes for the necessity of leaving the room. One may be lack of regular toilet habits which require training and the assistance of the home. Another cause may be an ailment which may be temporary or somewhat chronic. In either case the child or the parent should convey this information to the teacher, that full allowances may be made. In some

cases a child may leave the room with no sufficient cause whatsoever. The pupil becomes restless and wishes a change. This should spur the teacher to have sufficient activities of an interesting nature, to prevent pupils' becoming restless. The teacher, therefore, should plan to handle this problem in such a manner that the health of the pupils is never impaired and the classroom procedures never handicapped.

Punishments.—The matter of punishments is becoming less as our classroom practices are improved and our teachers are becoming more human. In the first place, the teacher should plan to avoid issues whereby disobedience and lack of co-operation take place. The object of punishment when it is administered should be definitely in the teacher's mind. We punish to improve the child, *never* as revenge. It is a very bad plan for the teacher to have rules and still worse to suggest definite punishments for violations of the rules. It was quite common to have rules in the old schools. The following list of rules indicates quite clearly former tendencies as late as 1848.

NO.	LASHES
*1. Boys & Girls Playing Together	4
2. Quareling	4
3. Fighting	5
4. Fighting at School	5
5. Quareling at School	3
6. Gambleing or Betting at School	4
7. Playing at Cards at School	10
8. Climbing for Every Foot Over three feet up a tree..	1
9. Telling Lyes	7
10. Telling Tales Out of School	8
11. Nick Naming Each Other	4

* Knight, Edgar W., *Education in the United States*, Chap. XIV, pp. 450-451. Ginn & Co.

NO.	LASHES
12. Giving Each Other Ill Names	3
13. Fighting Each Other in time of Books	2
14. Swearing at School	8
15. Blackguarding Each Other	6
16. For Misbehaving to Girls	10
17. For leaving School Without Leave of the teacher....	4
18. Going Home with each other without Leave of the Teacher	4
19. For Drinking Spirituous Liquors at School.....	8
20. Making Swings & Swinging on Them.....	7
21. For Misbehaving when a Stranger is in the House..	6
22. For waring Long Finger Nailles	2
23. For Not Making a bow when a Stranger Comes in or goes out	3
24. Misbehaving to Persons on the Road	4
25. For Not Making a bow when you Meet a Person....	4
26. For Going to Girls Play Places	3
27. Girls Going to Boys Play Places	2
28. Coming to School with Dirty face and Hands.....	2
29. For Caling Each Other Liars	4
30. For Playing Bandy	10
31. For Bloting Your Copy Book	2
32. For Not making a bow when you go home or when you come away	4
33. Wrestling at School	4
34. Scuffling at School	4
35. For Not Making a bow when going out to go home..	2
36. For Weting Each other Washing at Play Time.....	2
37. Girls Going to Boys Play Places	2
38. For Hollowing & Hooping Going Home	3
39. For Delaying Time Going home or Coming to School.	4
40. For Not mak: a bow when you Come in or go Out.	2
41. For Throwing Any Thing Harder than your trab ball	4
42. For Every word you mis in your Hart Leson without good Excuse	1
43. For Not Saying yes Sir & no Sir or yes Marm or no marm	2
44. For Troubleing Each others Writing affares	2

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NO.	LASHES
45. For Not washing at playtime when going to Books....	4
46. For Going & Play. ^s about the Mill or Creek.....	6
47. For Going about the Barn or doing Any Mischief about the Place	7

Punishment should be for the individual and not for the group. The group should not be punished for the mistakes of an individual pupil. If the entire group requires punishment it is doubtful as to the wisdom of administering it, as the teacher may weaken herself. She is likely to be at fault if the entire group has made some mistake. It may be best to smooth it over as diplomatically as possible and learn the cause of the disturbance, so that such situations may be prevented in the future.

Public reprimands and sarcastic remarks should *never* be used. Such actions will not permanently remedy conditions. The pupil so treated is likely to become so resentful that he will take revenge in further misconduct, possibly of a more serious type. The group hearing such public reprimands and sarcasms is prone to be resentful also. The teacher must have the group with her. Private conferences in which the teacher is calm and well poised yet thoroughly human and sympathetic will gradually bring remarkable results. Allow the pupil to state his view-point and then tactfully attempt to change this view-point if necessary. The teacher should attempt to secure a sincere determination to "be square" on the pupil's part. The pupil should be assisted, then, in this determination, without bitter reminders of past mistakes. If a punishment is decided upon and the pupil is fully satisfied, the results are likely to be effective. This does not mean pampering

the pupil, but it does mean mutual understanding and sympathetic co-operation.

Corporal punishment is fast going out of use, which is tangible evidence of human and intelligent practices in education. Other means are more effective in securing permanent results. While several State codes permit it, local regulations and sentiment are forbidding it in many places. Corporal punishment should never be administered when one is angry, and rarely without a witness. The consent of the home should be secured, otherwise trouble may result, and little improvement can be attained without co-operation between the school and the home.

It will be noted that in the discussion of classroom management the word "discipline" does not appear. This word seems to convey the wrong impression in modern practices. The pupil may be disciplined, but this should come from within, and the guidance and influence should be a matter of intelligently planned social environment. The term was used formerly to describe the teacher. "A good disciplinarian" now gives way to certain personal qualities which indicate the teacher's ability to influence the pupils properly toward purposeful activities. Direction supplants repression. Wise guidance includes the correct use of praise as a helpful incentive to conscientious effort. When we change from subject standards to pupil standards, we commend effort which is up to a pupil's ability.

Superintendent Willard E. Givens of the Oakland School Department has well stated some of the fundamental purposes of education and of efficient classroom management, in a recent school bulletin sent to his staff. It is as follows:

THE MASTER TEACHER

A traveller passing through a large city came upon a scene of great activity where many men were constructing a large building. Approaching one of the workmen, he asked, "What are you doing?" "I am working for five dollars a day." Approaching another workman, he said, "What are you doing?" "I am digging a foundation." Approaching a third workman, he said, "What are you doing?" "I am building a great cathedral which will be the inspiration of generations to come."

The traveller knew that he had talked to three classes of workmen—a wage earner, an artisan, and a master craftsman. It is this subtle difference in ways of looking at the daily task that distinguishes the master teacher from the one who is merely serving time without appreciating the meaning of what she is doing. One is concerned primarily with the money which she gets; one is concerned with subjects and facts, with attempts to cram knowledge into students' heads. The master teacher does not neglect information and facts, but looks beyond these to the potential personality which can come to fruition only through the wholesome attitudes, ideals, aspirations, and emotional characteristics which must be developed in connection with every subject.

Suggestive Problems

1. How would you secure the good will and helpfulness of a troublesome pupil who is somewhat of a leader?
2. Willie Jones is a social misfit and will not play naturally with his associates. He says they are too rough and that he is afraid he will soil his clothing. He is supported in this contention by his parents. What would you do about it?
3. Several pupils abuse the privilege of leaving the room. What procedures would you follow to correct this practice without impairing their health and without arousing the ill-will of the parents?
4. Make a list of criteria by which you may judge your influence over your pupils.

5. Is externally imposed discipline a necessary step in developing self-control.
6. Outline a plan for making a dilapidated rural school attractive.
7. Make a list of desirable steps to take in assisting an upper grade in organizing a club.
8. How would you proceed to determine whether each pupil's seat is comfortable?
9. Make a list of classroom routines which may be handled by the monitorial plan.
10. A serious misdemeanor has taken place in the classroom. A reliable boy knows who committed the offense. What psychological principles are you violating by insisting that this boy inform you as to the guilty person? In what ways may this boy be used to assist you in such problems without violating his loyalty to the group?
11. Outline a suitable plan to take care of visitors coming to your classroom.
12. Suggest a plan for reducing tardiness without increasing absence.

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CHAPTER V

RECITATIONS

Preview Questions

1. In what respects have we changed in our conceptions of the recitation periods?
2. What are some of the main purposes of recitations?
3. What are the values of the socialized recitation?
4. How may we ascertain the study habits of pupils?
5. What elements should we consider in making assignments to pupils?
6. What are some of the principles of effective drill?

Early Conceptions.—Our early conceptions of the recitation period are fully indicated by the term which was given this activity: recitation, to recite, to recall, to give back verbatim to the teacher the exact words of the text. It was merely a reciting to the teacher, who, with book in her hand, checked the pupils upon their ability to recall exact words assigned for this reciting period. It required little or no reflective thinking by either the teacher or the pupil. No organization of thought was necessary, and often little stimulation to further study or thinking resulted. This method did little to correlate the school work with life itself or with the child's experiences. We should avoid a critical attitude toward the aims and methods of former periods. They had their values and they were necessary steps to the enlarged and enriched programme of the modern school. The educators of these earlier periods were pioneers who may have been further ahead of their antecedents than we are ahead of them.

Progressive Conceptions.—We still use the term “recitation” as it has been handed down to us by the earlier educators but it no longer adequately indicates this period of the school day. By sharp contrast we see a large programme of aims and an enriched set-up of activities to realize these aims. The modern school so plans the recitations that a comprehensive scope of objectives will result. These objectives may well be grouped under the following classification:

1. Providing socializing opportunities.
2. Stimulating the pupils to think, which will develop their power to do reflective thinking in such a manner that there is a fine “carry-over” to their out-of-school activities and into adult life.
3. Assisting the pupils in organizing their thinking.
4. Guiding the pupils to do independent thinking.
5. Clearing up hazy conceptions.
6. Drilling and reviewing pupils, that worth-while factual material may be retained.
7. Testing the pupils, that careful diagnostic analyses may be made as preparatory for definite remedial measures.
8. Developing within pupils the power and the desire to appreciate the best in life.
9. Training the auditory sense by critical listening and active participation.

These objectives when clearly in mind make it possible to secure our comprehensive aims to a high degree, as it is essential to have definite purposes before valuable results can be attained.

Types of Recitations.—Classroom procedures during these recitation periods take on several forms and activities, depending upon the purposes and the require-

ments. These will be discussed in the following pages.

1. The socialized recitation will be discussed first. It is a form which has very valuable purposes, yet it is not always easy to secure in a profitable manner. One of the most important aims of the modern school is that of developing the social aspects of the child's life. It makes for better and happier living. The socialized recitation when carefully planned and skillfully managed contributes to this aim. The form of recitation is largely informal, though somewhat planned by the teacher and the pupils. It is also spontaneous in character, as the pupils respond as their thinking is directed. It is stimulative and creative, and therefore is valuable in meeting many of our most progressive aims.

As indicated above, the socialized recitation requires considerable skill. Some inexperienced teachers find that they are not successful with this activity at first, and experienced teachers at times find it difficult to manage with some classes of pupils who are somewhat unsocial. While the socialized recitation brings the best results with active, accelerated pupils, there is no reason to believe it cannot be administered with the normal or even with the slow pupils. In fact, these slower pupils may need this type of activity more than the brilliant pupils. All types may need it for socializing reasons, and the slower pupils may require it most to stimulate, direct, and organize their thinking.

The socialized recitation requires careful planning and intelligent thinking by the teacher. In the first place, it is necessary to establish right relationships in the class. This should include relationships among the pupils and between the teacher and the pupils. To work together in a co-operative, highly socialized manner,

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requires attitudes and habits of social conduct of a high order. The experienced teacher fully realizes that such relationships are more easily secured with some groups than with others. This social attitude may be attained before undertaking the socialized recitation, or developed simultaneously as it progresses. In either case it is essential to successful administration. The pupils must be co-operative toward one another and toward their teacher, and she toward them. This relationship has been discussed in the chapter on Classroom Management.

Another important element in this form of activity is the type of topic to be discussed. The first topics must be most carefully selected. They should be of special interest to the pupils, subjects about which they know something, subjects which touch their lives, problems which will arouse them. Generally a question regarding their local environment will arouse immediate interest and stimulate thinking. The author knows of a slow third grade class of pupils who began such work with a discussion of their neighborhood, which was an interesting industrial section of a large commercial city. Even the slowest pupils had something to contribute.

After the teacher or the teacher and the pupils have selected a topic, the teacher will do well to think out the type of questions she will ask the pupils. While this may not always be necessary with the experienced teacher, the inexperienced teacher should always plan carefully each step, then vary the procedure as the occasion requires. Some advanced assignments are often necessary and helpful. Assignments to pupils on the basis of interest constitute good technique. The grouping of pupils also on the basis of interest will, under

guidance, secure very satisfactory results. Here the pupils have an opportunity to plan and to work together, to express themselves and to exchange points of view in small groups before participating in the larger groups.

When the entire class participates in the socialized recitation, it is generally necessary to formulate some definite procedure to insure satisfactory results. There are at least three plans which successful teachers have found satisfactory. One is to have a club organization with a chairman selected by the pupils. This chairman can preside during socialized recitations, when special programmes or activities are presented and when the teacher is unavoidably detained from the room. The chairman should be changed several times during the semester, to provide opportunity in leadership for several pupils. It is an excellent plan to have the pupils occasionally select pupils who most need such training in leadership. On one occasion a seventh grade teacher was much concerned because the pupils had selected a slow, reticent boy who could never do well in an oral recitation. She felt that he could not accept the office, although it could clearly be seen he felt honored at his selection. Under guidance he developed into a fine chairman, much to the elation of his teacher, his principal, his parents, and his classmates.

Another plan is to have a chairman selected for each socialized recitation. Still another plan is to have the child leading the discussion or giving a topical recitation act as chairman for the time being.

The degree of formality in conducting a socialized recitation must depend upon the age and type of pupils. Formal parliamentary procedures are carried out by

some teachers with the pupils as a matter of training, and to insure some orderly practices. All must not talk at once. Each should take his turn and be considerate of the rights and the point of view of the others. Generally it is best to have some one designate who is to talk, preferably a chairman and not the teacher. The teacher should be in the background as a guide in the socialized procedures.

The socialized recitation may take a variety of forms and may be used in a modified form in connection with other types of recitations and in all classroom activities. The topical recitation, the discussion groups, the project or activities programmes; the directed-study type, the developing and the appreciation lesson may all be conducted on a socialized basis. Thus, we see there is considerable overlapping in types of recitations with the purposes determining to a large extent the type used by the teacher and the pupils.

There are several cautions to observe in order that the socialized recitation may be successful. We should plan to have the pupils respect the rights and viewpoints of one another and of the teacher. This is valuable training which should be developed early in childhood and carried out through school life and into adult life. We see so many people in life who do not respect another's point of view, who cannot exchange ideas in harmony, that we realize a real need in the training of boys and girls. In our every-day life and in reading history we find plenty of examples of people who stoop to petty personalities as soon as a difference of opinion is manifest. The socialized recitation can well provide this opportunity for some much needed training. Another caution is in regard to the talkative pupil. He

is so enthusiastic he wants to talk much of the time, disregarding any contribution which others might make if not so hesitant. This type of pupil should be treated with patience yet with firmness. Possibly the teacher should hold a private conference with him, as he has a valuable lesson to learn.

Another type of pupil also needs some intelligent guidance,—the pupil who is so reticent that he will never participate in class discussions unless called upon. He needs bringing out, developing. He may have a keen intellect and possess real contributions. He may have little to contribute and may feel his lack of ability to participate. The teacher would do well to help him individually, to strengthen his weakness, to overcome his feeling of inferiority, and to place him upon his “intellectual feet.”

The presiding officer should be trained to distribute his questions and to call upon as many in the class as possible.

Another needed caution is to make sure the discussion is carried along worthy channels, that too much digressing is avoided, that irrelevant contributions and needless repetitions do not take place. Here the skillful teacher by a sympathetic word can put the pupils upon the right avenues of thought, avoiding chaos and waste of time. Criticisms of the pupils should be guided along constructive lines and toward worth-while phases of the major questions.

Another point to avoid is that of leaving the class in doubt as to the essential factual material to be retained. This can often be accomplished by a careful summary of essentials. The teachers generally feel that this is their contribution to the socialized recitation,

although a skillful chairman with preparation and occasionally with the teacher's assistance can conduct the summarizing phase of the recitation. We should avoid doing the thinking for the pupils, yet we should guide and stimulate them and then summarize outstanding essentials.

The socialized recitation is a valuable means of realizing major educational objectives when properly conducted.

Topical Recitations.—The topical form of recitation is largely used throughout elementary, secondary, and higher education. It has many distinct advantages, hence can well be used extensively. It can be used as a testing device in which the pupil has little opportunity to prepare his topic, or it may be used with an advanced assignment. In that case the pupil has the opportunity to do considerable reading, which is a preliminary step to reference work which comes in higher education. The pupil thus has a motivated purpose in reading which is valuable in securing factual material and in developing ability in reading for comprehension.

Another outstanding value of the topical recitation is the opportunity provided the pupil to organize his reading and his thinking preparatory to making his report to the class. It also provides a motivation for good oral English, as he must present his topic in clear, forceful English; otherwise the class will become uninterested in his report. To secure the advantages of this type of recitation, the teacher must observe certain precautions. Some pupils will need assistance in collecting data, in organizing them and in presentation to the class. It is generally more beneficial to the individual giving his report to have it given as his own, in his own

language regardless of an occasional error, than to commit to memory the ideas and language of the authors he has read. Verbatim reports are of very doubtful value. We should always strive to prevent a listless, uninterested class, as it is supposed to constitute the audience. An interesting speaker using his own language and much originality in the organization of his material, together with a "chalk talk," objects or other forms of visual material, will do much to assure an interested audience. Such talks, followed by discussions and questions on a somewhat socialized basis, will do much to secure the kind of attention desired. When the class feels interested and responsible for a clearly presented topic, good results are likely to be attained. We should avoid at all times lack of interest and lack of responsibility by the audience. We should avoid a care-free attitude by the class during the presentation of a topical recitation. Too many times the members of the class may feel sorry for the one giving the report, and rejoice that they were not called upon. Skillful use of the socialized methods will often prevent this attitude.

The Directed-Study Type.—The directed-study type of recitation is also very valuable and much needed by many classes. In this type we generally direct the pupils' studying. They have their books open while the skillful teacher directs many useful activities. It is generally necessary to direct the pupils on the correct use of texts. The use of the table of contents, the index, graphs, statistical tables, chapter titles, marginal and paragraph headings may all require careful guidance during this directed study lesson. Pupils often need assistance in selecting topic sentences, essential

and subordinate points. This is especially true when pupils are taking up the use of texts other than readers for the first time. Valuable time can be saved and beneficial abilities can be developed by the directed-study period devoted to the proper use of books.

Another use of this type of recitation is in the development of new work in arithmetic where the pupils must have certain new topics carefully developed during the class period and then must be guided skillfully by the teacher. This may be interpreted by some as the supervised-study period and well it may be. However, the term supervised-study period has covered such a variety of activities with abuses as well as beneficial results that the author prefers to term it a directed-study lesson. This term fully implies the teacher's working with the pupils and guiding them wisely in such study, while the other may degenerate into policing the pupils to prevent any disturbances and to make sure that all are at least looking in their books. This was not the original purpose of supervised study. The teacher should be fully occupied with the pupils in a well-planned directed-study activity. The teacher should analyze carefully the study needs of her pupils and then plan intelligently to meet these requirements in a well-directed study recitation.

The needs and value of effective study habits are apparent to all teachers working intelligently with students. We have a few scientific studies, however, which indicate quite clearly this need. Book¹ in a study gave a group of university freshmen a typical reading assignment with the understanding that they should be

¹ Book, W. F., *Learning How to Study and Work Effectively*. Ginn & Co., 1926.

prepared to answer certain questions on the content a day or two later. He found that 27 per cent of the men and 39 per cent of the women could not even give a title to the chapter read. He found, furthermore, as wide a range of ability as we often find in the elementary field. The best student was able to recall 94 per cent of the main points of the chapter, while the poorest student could recall but 3 per cent.

In another experiment he divided a class in advanced psychology into two groups. To one group he gave six hours of special instruction in rapid reading, the other group receiving no such instruction. He then found that the first group was 69.5 per cent proficient in a reading test and the second group but 59.2 per cent proficient in the same test.

There are certain administrative aspects to observe in developing plans to carry out efficient classroom procedures, which will tend to increase the pupils' ability to study effectively. In the first place the teacher should be freed from other duties to work directly with the pupils while they are studying. In high schools we find some fourteen plans in vogue to bring the teacher and the pupil together for study purposes. One common plan is to lengthen the periods which are divided into recitations and supervised study. In the elementary field where the teacher often has two classes, a real problem is presented. The class studying may be distracted by an interesting recitation, and the teacher is generally busy all day long with recitations. Possibly it is best to plan the work so that the teacher is free to work with the class at study at least once each week in each subject. This is generally possible by planning carefully an occasional directed-study recitation or ac-

tivity. This, naturally, will depend upon the type of pupils and the nature of the work. The physical condition of the pupils and the classroom environment must be conducive to effective work.

Another important element is the teacher's ability necessary to develop efficient study habits. The teacher who is a student herself is most likely to be successful in teaching pupils how to study. She can well be a student of present-day problems (not necessarily an expert in them) and know how to assist pupils in interpreting these problems. She should be a student of the subjects she teaches, well beyond the limits required of her pupils. She should also be a student of the best methods of teaching these subjects. It is generally recognized that knowledge of a field and of the best methods of instruction within that field are entirely different. This knowledge of the most effective methods of instruction within each field includes the habits of study within that field. She should also be a student of childhood and of the best methods of arousing wholesome interests.

We now come to certain procedures which will tend to develop effective habits of study. In the first place we should realize that one very fundamental conception of study is reflective thinking. Furthermore, we should realize that developing certain powers, habits and attitudes is fully as important as the acquisition of factual material—that ability to study within a field is a fundamental objective. In carrying out this conception of fundamental aims, we must have in mind abilities fully as much as amount of content to be covered. It is inconceivable that a teacher should feel that she has no time to develop habits of study as she has so much

"ground to cover." Courses of study and text-books could well include exercises in developing habits of effective study along with the acquisition of the content. We should determine reasonable study habit goals within each field along with the various levels of abilities which the pupils possess.

In the second place we should investigate intelligently the habits which the pupils have developed thus far. Some of these habits may be effective and some of them may require considerable modification and improvement.

Symonds¹ suggests six methods which may be used to ascertain the pupils' habits of study. They are listed in the following classification:

- (1) Questionnaire to pupils.
- (2) Interviews with pupils.
- (3) Questionnaires to teachers.
- (4) Inspection of the pupils' finished products, such as note books.
- (5) Observation of the pupils while studying, noting carefully certain practices in vogue.
- (6) The testing of the pupils.

Finch² suggests the following testing procedures:

- (1) Testing the pupils' ability to answer direct questions on reading content, ability to select important points, ability to write intelligent questions about a paragraph, and ability to collect information suggested by a simple outline.
- (2) Testing the pupils' comprehension of certain expressions.

¹ Symonds, Percival, "Methods of Investigation of Study Habits," *School and Society*, 25: No. 605, pp. 145-152, July, 1926.

² Finch, C. E., "Junior High School Study Tests," *School Review*, 28: pp. 220-226.

(3) Testing the pupils' ability to use books.

We should also consider study habits in all assignments. Several items in assignments have been used experimentally by the author. In the first place it is well to consider effective habits of study in all assignments possible. Questions and problems of all kinds which provoke reflective thinking should be given the pupils upon every occasion possible.

Furthermore, in our assignments we should consider a reasonable amount of work for the pupils to do in the allotted time. We try so hard to keep the pupils busy, to "cover ground" that we may hurry them to the point where reflective thinking is hampered or made impossible. Assignments should be as flexible as possible considering the individual interests of the pupils. "Blanket" assignments to all pupils are comparatively easy to plan, while the group or individual assignments require more planning and far more skill in administering. However, planning to fit the assignment of work to the interests and needs of the pupils will greatly increase the study-habit abilities of the pupils. The assignments should be given with considerable care, taking plenty of time, that a motive for study is aroused with a definiteness clearly understood by all pupils.

Home assignments should be studied very intelligently. It is doubtful as to the value of many required home assignments for the pupils in the elementary field. Home conditions may not be conducive to effective study, hence the study habits being developed at school may be counteracted at home. Possibly the poorest type of home assignment is the problem work in arithmetic with which the pupils may receive assistance of the wrong kind. The parents or older brothers

or sisters called upon for assistance may find it easier to work the problems than it is to lead the pupils to perform and to understand the work. Extended collateral reading and reference work in the public library or in the adequately equipped home library constitute a valuable home assignment in many instances with some pupils who are fortunate to have access to such material and possess the ability to use it. Construction work and correlated art work and original work in English constitute another type of home assignment which is most valuable when somewhat of a voluntary nature.

Definitely planned exercises in developing certain abilities in silent reading may well be carried out during this directed-study recitation. They will be discussed more fully in later chapters, where these silent-reading abilities are treated.

This directed-study period should also include conferences with the pupils as to the best means of studying. Pupils even in the elementary field are mature enough to think about such habits and to develop pride in possessing desirable abilities. Assignments and suggestive questions on study habits have been found to be most valuable by the author. Following is a list of questions and outlines used to advantage:

1. Does your study of Reading, Geography, or History bring questions to your mind not answered in the book?
2. Could you find the answers to these questions from:

Your father or mother?
The newspaper?
Magazines?
The Library?

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In which class are you?

1. The boy or girl who thinks little?
2. The boy or girl who thinks about useless things?
3. The boy or girl who thinks about useful things?

1. If you wanted to become an athlete, could you train your muscles to do what you desired?

2. How would you go about it?
3. If you want to become a good thinker, can you train your mind to obey you?
4. How will you go about it?

1. If a subject is hard for you, do you make up your mind that you *can* learn it and that you *will* learn it?

2. Do you ask for help too soon or do you first try to find out things for yourself?

3. Do you get something out of every paragraph that you read?

1. Can you judge the value of a paragraph?

2. If it seems important, what would you do with it?

3. If it seems unimportant, what would you do?

1. Do you let the things that happen in the room take your mind from your work?

2. Could you train your mind so that it would not do this?

3. If you can do that, would your work improve?

4. Do you enjoy your work better when you can do it well, or when you do it poorly?

1. As you study, can you tell which words you do not know?

2. Can you tell whether you need that word or phrase explained in order to get the meaning of the sentence?

3. To what places can you go to get the information you need about a word or a phrase?

4. How many of these sources of information are you using?

1. Do you find it harder to keep your mind on some studies than on others?

2. What are you doing to change that?
3. Are you putting your best effort on your hardest subjects?
4. Are you using every spare minute in school for some worth-while reading?

In which of the following classes are you:

PUPIL 1

Complete, regular preparation; thorough supplementary reading, exceeding the expectations of the teacher. Assimilates.

PUPIL 2

Somewhat like Pupil 1, but does less supplementary reading and investigation.

PUPIL 3

Meeting the demand and suggestions of the teacher but doing no supplementary work on his own initiative.

PUPIL 4

This pupil barely covers the minimum daily assignments.

PUPIL 5

Careless, inefficient. Fails to follow directions. Work nearly always incomplete.

GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY STUDY HABITS

1. Do you read the question first and then find the answer? Why is this the best way to study?
 2. Can you keep your mind on your work or does it wander?
 3. Can you study alone or do you need help?
 4. As you study, are you looking for questions to ask the class?
 5. As you read, can you tell which facts are important and which are not?
1. Do you always face the class when you talk?
 2. Do you speak plainly enough for every one in the room to hear?

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3. Do you use good English?
4. Have you studied well enough to give an interesting recitation?

CONTENT READING ASSIGNMENT IN GRADES SEVEN AND EIGHT

Ask yourself these questions :

1. Do I waste time in getting started to study?
2. Do I understand the assignment?
3. Do I know what books carry information on the subject?
4. Do I know how to use these books?
5. Do I go all around the subject and fail to get the facts?
6. Do I attend wholly to the job while on it?
7. Is it possible for me to gain better study habits?

Further assignments may well hinge around solutions of problems, finding the main topic of a paragraph or outlining a paragraph.¹

Jones at the University of Buffalo takes the "poor risks" from the freshman class for some definite drill in proper study habits. The drill includes work upon rapid reading with tests upon comprehension, conferences and drill upon mental hygiene, attentiveness, memorizing, and efficient note taking.

Book at the University of Indiana includes eight items in his coaching programme :

1. Knowing what physical and mechanical conditions are favorable to studying.
2. Knowing where, when, and how long to study.
3. Knowing how to concentrate attention.
4. Knowing the general rules of procedure in studying.
 - (1) Understand the aim.
 - (2) Make quick reviews of preceding units.
 - (3) Learn the rules and definitions thoroughly before trying to use them.

¹ Gist, Arthur S., *Elementary School Supervision*, Chap. III. Scribners, 1926.

- (4) Suit pace and style of reading to material in hand.
- (5) Enlarge the vocabulary daily.
- (6) Acquire efficient use of the days in the College Library.
- (7) Locate weak points in study habits and give attention to them."

Thus we see that the directed-study period may be used in a variety of ways to develop effective study habits.

The Drill Type.—The drill type of recitation is essential to fix in mind certain factual material and skills necessary for general information and as tools to more advanced study. Drill is as necessary in the modern school as it was in the former school, yet it is but one of many types of recitations at the present time. Skills must receive drill until correct habits are fixed. Such skills once habituated may become lost arts later if not used, yet may be quite readily revived upon occasion. There should be some clearly defined principles of drill, that it should be most effective. Such principles are set forth in the chapter upon Arithmetic. They also have a wide application to drill in other fields.

The question and answer type of drill is an effective form of testing and of drill. Such questions may be given to the pupils orally or in written form. This latter form will be found in detail in the chapters on subject matter. The oral questions may be given in a rapid fire type of procedure covering a wide range of material, and drill all of the pupils quite thoroughly in a short period of time. Such questions may take the form of review material in which considerable content of the semester and even of preceding semesters can be reviewed in a comprehensive manner.

The lecture or talking method is another type of reci-

tation which may be used by the teacher if skill and intelligent care are observed. This type of recitation is in common use in higher education and is used in modified form in the elementary field. Its effectiveness is of doubtful value if used extensively in any field. One writer¹ speaks of the lecture plan as "that mysterious process by means of which the contents of the note-book of the professor are transferred through the instrument of the fountain pen to the note-book of the student without passing through the mind of either." We must remember that one important aim of education is to develop creative thinking, and that continued lecturing or talking may not contribute to this aim. This is especially true in the elementary field. There is possibly a place for it with elementary school pupils if used sparingly and judiciously.

Another type of recitation is the appreciation lesson. This may constitute a distinct type or may be a valuable by-product of other forms of recitations. We must fully appreciate the best in life before we can be very successful in developing this emotional response and intelligent analysis with the pupils. The enrichment of life is an important aim in the modern educational programme. If we can inspire the pupils to lofty ideals and to a spontaneous appreciation of wholesome activities their leisure time is likely to be properly provided for. With their leisure fully occupied with such emotions and appreciations adequate character development is practically assured. The first element, then, is an appreciation by the teacher herself, and a full realization of its influence upon the lives of the pupils. We

¹ Miller, H. L., *Creative Learning and Teaching*, Chap. III. Scribners, 1927.

can then provide carefully planned "exposures" to the best in literature, drawing, music, art, and all forms of cultural activities and pleasures. These "exposures" can well include directed studies of best elements in these reproductions and representations. Participation in good music, and in the creating of all forms of original English, and the expression of ideas and ideals in the form of art, constitute valuable procedures in developing appreciations along these lines. Forced appreciations and expressions of these cultures should be avoided.

It requires considerable time to develop certain emotional responses with many pupils as with adults. Our expressions of these appreciations come quite slowly, possibly years after our exposures. The test is the change in pupils' lives, so that the development of appreciation may be a definite educational objective while the adequate testing of our success in this venture may well be avoided or planned sparingly and intelligently. The appreciation activities may well be an important by-product of much of our instructional purposes and procedures.

The Teacher's Part.—The teacher is a guide, a friend, a counsellor, a director of wholesome activities and stimulator to the best type of work by the pupils. She must prepare her work thoroughly and intelligently, often modifying the carefully prepared plans in the light of procedures developed with the pupils. The teacher must often be in the background guiding the pupils in their thinking and in all forms of creative activity. Formerly we expected the teacher to hold the centre of the arena, to do all the thinking and to perform most of the activities. Now we expect her to

stimulate the pupils to conscientious effort. We want to see what she can direct and guide in pupils and how she is able to arouse pupils along effective lines.

An important element in the recitation period is the assignment of or the suggestions for activities. This requires considerable intelligence, skill, and advanced preparation. This assignment should arouse real desires on the part of the pupils to work, to explore, to investigate, to concentrate, and to produce. The assignment is often given to the best advantage during the close of a recitation or activity period when interests have been aroused and the teacher sees the next steps intelligently. The teacher should plan to take plenty of time in directing subsequent activities. She should ask herself several questions as a check on her directing these next steps.

1. Are the pupils interested in proceeding further with these activities? If they are not, should she abandon this phase of the work, or should she try other means?

2. Is the work planned of real educational value? What are these values?

3. Are the suggestions sufficiently clear to direct the pupils along useful avenues?

4. Have the suggestions challenged the pupils sufficiently?

The Pupil's Part.—The part which the pupil performs in the recitation has been discussed from some angles. He should be interested to the degree that he desires to participate up to the limit of his capacity. He should want to work with other pupils and should want to learn how to do this effectively when he has social shortcomings. He may often require some

guidance from the teacher and from pupil leaders of his group. He should be so interested that he wants to listen attentively to all oral activities taking place in the classroom. This will often require planning, guidance and challenging procedures. The presentation and the listening should be of a type that the repeating of questions, directions, and oral discussions need not be necessary. The repeating of such work often prevents the development of concentration and the training in social courtesies.

Variation of Recitations.—We have now discussed many types of recitations. Some of these types are distinct; others are not and overlap one another considerably. It is rarely essential that the teacher should definitely define the type she is using or attempt to adhere closely to any particular type. She should, however, be keenly conscious of her procedures and of the best form of activity to employ for every occasion. She should check herself continually as to major objectives and as to the value of certain practices in realizing these aims.

Suggestive Problems

1. How can you bring out the reticent pupils?
2. How can you guide the bluffing, over-talkative pupils?
3. List the cautions to be observed in home assignments.
4. Your class is not interested in arithmetic drill. What can you do to vitalize such drill?
5. How may you guard against too much talking and explanations by yourself during the recitations?
6. Make a list of suitable criteria by which to judge effective recitations.
7. List some of the most important functions to perform during a supervised study period.

8. The teacher is a director of learning. In what respects is this true?

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CHAPTER VI

MEASUREMENT OF ABILITY AND ACHIEVEMENT

Preview Questions

1. What has scientific education to contribute to our aims and to our success in instruction?
2. Why should we use some standardized tests?
3. What are some of the most essential testing conditions?
4. What is a subjective test?
5. What are some of the essential elements of objective tests?
6. How is the I. Q. computed? The A. Q.?
7. What are the advantages of the essay form of test?

The Testing Movement.—The testing movement was augmented considerably by Horace Mann in 1845, when he criticized the poor results of the Boston Public Schools. He compared the expenditures for public education in Boston with those made by the British Parliament for public education in England, showing that such expenditures in Boston were greater than those in England. He made no comparison of the Boston results with those in England, because of lack of scientific data. His criticism was based largely upon the results, which fell short of his ideals of what education in Boston should accomplish. His emphatic criticism so aroused the committee whose duty it was to visit the schools annually and to report upon their work, that tests in the various subjects were prepared and given to the pupils in the Boston Public Schools.

The results of these tests as to desirable attainments

by the pupils are somewhat doubtful. The critics could show poor results, while the Boston schoolmasters could defend the achievement of their pupils. They had no scientific data upon which to base comparisons and to indicate desirable results. The tests were unscientific also because of many subjective elements. It is interesting to note that these tests were repeated over a wider area in the United States in 1906, sixty years later. While the subject matter had changed considerably, the results showed a higher level of achievement in 1906, although our curricula had been enriched with no increase in the length of the school day. We were actually spending less time upon the three R's than in 1846. This early testing, however, indicates one of the beginning landmarks in educational measurements.

Inaccuracies of Marks.—Another condition which augmented the testing movement was the investigation of the marks given pupils by the teachers. These marks showed inaccuracies which were caused by the subjective elements and by inadequate standards.

These studies are interesting and amusing, yet illuminating. Doctor Ben D. Wood of Columbia University gives a typical example of this inaccuracy. A group of experts employed to mark certain papers in history wrote out a model paper as a standard for all to use in marking the set. In some manner this model paper was mixed with the test papers and was also marked by all these experts. The marks given to this paper also varied, the range being from 40 to 90.

Another study was made by Brooks,¹ in which he

¹ Brooks, *Improving Schools by Standardized Tests*, pp. 17-18. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923.

gave some arithmetic papers containing ten problems in percentage to a group of twenty-four teachers for the purpose of marking. The range of their marks was from 65 to 94. After a lively discussion he tried them again on some history papers, with as great a range of markings as on the arithmetic papers.

Doctor Ashbaugh¹ tried an interesting experiment in having forty-nine students, most of them experienced teachers, mark an arithmetic test three times at intervals of four weeks. Only one of the forty-nine students gave the paper the same rating on all three markings. Eleven were able to agree with themselves in two out of three markings. One student rated the paper 55, 30, 40, on the three trials. Another student's ratings were 54, 76, 70. These two students practically agree on their first ratings, but disagree on subsequent ratings. These studies are but a few of many which indicate inaccuracies and injustices which must be overcome in some way. Scientific tests and objective elements in the non-standardized tests assist us in avoiding these errors. These tests will now be discussed.

Objects of Scientific Tests.—This inadequacy of the non-standardized tests resulted in some very definite objectives for scientifically prepared tests. One of the first uses of standardized tests was for very general survey purposes. A school system should have definite and scientific data upon which to compare the results of instruction within its system, with other school organizations. The standards prepared by the experts in testing show quite conclusively the achievement of the

¹ Ashbaugh, E. J., "Reducing the Variability of Teachers' Marks," *Journal of Educational Research*, 9: pp. 185-198, March, 1924.

pupils. Within a system it is possible to compare schools and to compare various grades in the different schools. It is doubtful, however, as to the wisdom of very much publicity of individual school results within a city system. The data is essential for administrative and supervisory purposes for the superintendent's staff. However, any publicity given to the comparison of results may cause dissension among the teachers and the principals and produce undue emphasis, coaching and cramming upon the measurable elements in teaching, to the detriment of the immeasurable features. Many conditions within a school may justify some variation from the standard attained by the majority of schools. Language handicaps, continued illness due to an epidemic, inadequate supervision and neighborhood environment may contribute to lower levels of attainments. Standardized tests for general survey purposes are very desirable when studied and used judiciously.

Contrasted with the general survey tests we have the diagnostic forms used to analyze definitely individual and class weaknesses that remedial measures may be given where most needed. In fact, it is doubtful as to the value of general diagnostic testing unless the results are carefully studied and remedial measures are intelligently prepared and skillfully administered. It is of little value to analyze conditions scientifically unless we do something about it. An entire class or school may be so far below standard that conditions should be improved. The same may be true of an individual pupil capable of doing a higher standard of work. This pupil may be weak in an entire subject or he may need special drill upon certain phases of the

subject. While standardized tests are used both for survey and diagnostic purposes the latter object is likely to influence instruction more than the former reason.

Another object in using standardized tests is to properly classify the pupils. As discussed elsewhere, the classification of pupils entirely upon the basis of mental age is of doubtful value. However, within a classroom, proper grouping of pupils is often a distinct advantage for instructional purposes. Such a classification for remedial purposes was carefully worked out by Miss Probst¹ in the Minneapolis Schools, as shown by the following table.

		NUMBER	PER CENT
Group I.	Pupils of standard ability.....	15	5
Group II.	Pupils for whom the regular work will furnish sufficient drill	71	21
Group III.	Pupils in need of thorough drill..	129	39
Group IV.	Pupils who need special attention and extra drill	70	21
Group V.	Pupils so far below standard that special adjustment is necessary.	45	14
Total number of pupils tested.....		330	100

Another object in giving standardized tests is to evaluate instruction and the experimental features of new curricula. It is doubtful as to the value of judging teaching efficiency solely upon the results of standardized tests. Many valuable objectives of education, such as attitudes, can scarcely be adequately measured. Furthermore, so many elements enter into such evaluation that injustice may result. However, many fea-

¹ Probst, Ella M., Principal, Calhoun School, Minneapolis, Minn.

tures of new curricula may be measured adequately and modified and improved whenever desirable. Courses of instruction in many instances may be tested scientifically.

Still another object in testing pupils is to assist us in determining promotions and non-promotions. While it is true that some educators are advocating no non-promotions and all classifications upon the chronological basis, many schools will continue for some time to consider achievement and capacity along with the chronological age. When we consider all three of these elements, testing results are valuable aids to us. It gives us a tangible basis for many conferences with parents, though we may not deem it wise to show all test results to the parents nor to inform them as to the exact intelligence quotient of the child.

Still another object of standardized testing is to check progress, which is often a genuine stimulus to teacher and to pupils. Most standardized tests have two or more forms of about equal difficulty. This makes it possible to check progress quite scientifically.

Furthermore, it is valuable to know as definitely as possible the mental capacity of the pupils. This can be determined quite accurately at the present time by the use of intelligence tests. While these tests are not infallible, they are valuable aids in judging mental capacities and should in most cases be considered guides. If but one standardized test can be given to all pupils, possibly the group intelligence test can be given to all pupils, possibly the group intelligence test is the most useful to the teacher. The main use which many teachers find for the intelligence tests is to check each pupil's mental capacity with his achievement. We

want to determine whether the pupil is working up to his capacity. In some cases there will be a close relationship between each pupil's mental capacity and his achievements in the various subjects. When there is a wide range of difference between this capacity and the achievement a real problem presents itself. Occasionally it is wise to retest such pupil's intelligence. When a group intelligence test has been given, an individual intelligence test should be given as a check upon the group test. It has been found in many cases that the group test is nearly as accurate as the individual test, yet a check is helpful. We check the most outstanding cases at both ends of the distribution. When a wide difference between mental capacity and achievement in subject matter still exists, we must then study the causes. This difference may be due to lack of interest. Some pupils of high intelligence have poor work habits, which in turn may be due to lack of interest in performing tasks which are no challenge to them. In other words, the work assigned to the majority of the pupils is too easy for them. Other causes may be ill health, irregular attendance and lack of previous training. The teacher, however, should be most cautious in assigning the cause to lack of previous training. Other teachers may have done all possible with such pupils. Each teacher should take all pupils assigned to her with the purpose of doing as much as possible for them. There should be no alibis. Each problem case should be a challenge to the teacher. Occasionally teachers will discover pupils somewhat low in mental capacity, yet from a relative standpoint doing fairly good work. This will doubtless be due to strenuous effort on the part of the pupils and the teachers.

It indicates the pupils working well up to their mental capacities. Naturally that is a satisfactory condition.

While the main use of intelligence testing is to ascertain which pupils are working up to their capacities, these tests are also valuable aids in determining classifications and promotions.

The information which such tests give constitutes valuable aids in instruction and in classification, but the intelligence quotient is entirely confidential information for the teacher. Rarely should the parent or the child know definitely the results. The parent of the gifted child will often be so elated with such information that neighbors will know what a remarkable child he is, and in some instances the information may be given to friends, relatives and neighbors, in the presence of the child. A serious case of superiority complex may result. This handicaps the real purposes of the school. It must be overcome before the child can take an important place in the world later. When the pupil has a low intelligence score parents will seldom believe it, and antagonism is often aroused with the parent when informed.

The pupil may develop an inferiority complex, which is also bad. In some cases such pupils may build up a defense mechanism to cover up certain mental handicaps. With the parents of the superior children it may suffice to tell them that their children are capable of good results, and the school and the home should work together to secure such results. The parents of the less endowed children may well be informed that their children are somewhat slow in attaining some phases of the school programme, and may well go into lines where usefulness is more likely to be assured.

SOURCE OF INTELLIGENCE TESTS

GROUP TESTS

The Cole-Vincent Test.—This test is valuable for entrance purposes, and may be used with either the kindergarten or first grade pupils. Many schools wish to classify entering pupils somewhat upon the basis of ability, and this test is a valuable guide in such plans. It can be secured from the Bureau of Educational Measurements and Standards, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas.

The Detroit (Engel) First-Grade Intelligence Test.—Form A of this test may be used with first grade pupils upon entrance, as it is a non-reading test. It can be secured from the World Book Company, 2126 Prairie Avenue, Chicago, or 149 New Montgomery Street, San Francisco.

The Detroit (Baker) Intelligence Tests.—The Primary Test is for grades II, III, and IV, and the Alpha Test is for grades V to IX. These tests can be secured from the Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.

The Detroit (Baker Kaufmann) Kindergarten Test.—Form A of this test has been used quite extensively by the author, with most satisfactory results. Pupils can well be divided into slow, normal, and fast groups. It can be secured from the World Book Company.

The Illinois General Intelligence Test.—This test has also been used for a good many years by the author. It has two forms, 1 and 2, and can be used in grades three to eight inclusive. It was found to be somewhat difficult, and hence of little value below the high third grade. These tests classify the pupils tested

in the following manner, as compared with the Binet Test:

DESCRIPTIVE INTERPRETATION	RANGES OF CORRESPONDING I. Q.'s	
	IN ILLINOIS	IN BINET
	SCALE	SCALE
Near genius or genius	140 and above	140 and above
Very Superior	125-139	120-139
Superior	115-124	110-119
Normal or Average	85-114	90-109
Dull	75- 84	80- 89
Borderline	60- 74	70- 79
Mental Deficiency	Below 60	Below 70

These tests may be secured from the Public School Publishing Company.

The Multi-Mental Scale for Elementary School.—Form I of this test can be used in the third grade and above to good advantage. Many progressive cities use this test. It can be secured from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

The National Intelligence Test.—This test, possibly, is the most widely used group intelligence test on the market, and is considered by many experts as the most reliable in results. It has two scales, A and B, and forms 1, 2, and 3 for each scale. They can be used in grades three to eight inclusive. Scales A and B correlate highly but are not the same in content. They can be secured from the World Book Company.

The Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test.—Form A of this test has been used with many classes by the author and found to be very valuable. It is entirely pictorial and can be used in the kindergarten and first two grades. It can be purchased from the World Book Company.

INDIVIDUAL TEST

The Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Test is the most widely used of the individual intelligence tests, and is considered by many experts as the most reliable. The cost is somewhat high and the scoring is difficult because of certain subjective elements. It can only be given by some one especially trained in testing. It can be secured from C. H. Stoelting Company, 3037 Carroll Avenue, Chicago.

Many school systems test all pupils with some group intelligence tests. They select one of those mentioned above, which has more than one form. These school systems use a kindergarten-primary test below the third grade and a test suitable for grades three to eight. It is a common practice to test all third grade pupils with one form and then retest them when in the sixth grade, using another form as a check upon the first test.

Kinds of Tests.—With the purposes of tests in mind, it is well now to consider the classification of tests. It is easy to think of tests as standardized and non-standardized. The standardized have been prepared by experts; have been tried out with thousands of pupils until "norms" have been established. In studying the results of such tests we know how each pupil compares with thousands of other pupils of similar chronological and mental age. These tests are objective in character, that is, the checking of answers is determined by definite keys. The results are to some extent not influenced by the judgment of those scoring the papers. The exercises are right or wrong as

checked by these keys. With the judgment of the scorer largely eliminated, greater justice is done the pupils.

The standardized tests may be classified into two divisions, the intelligence tests and the achievement tests. The former have been discussed briefly, and the latter will be discussed in chapters to follow.

Selection of Standardized Tests.—The intelligent selection of standardized tests is an important problem for the teacher. She may be fortunate enough to work with a principal who can give her valuable assistance in such selections. She may teach in a school system where a research department has such tests subject to requisition. This is fortunate indeed, yet she may still be called upon to make some selection. In the first place, it is necessary to determine what we want to test. Is it intelligence or is it achievement? If it is achievement, then what subject do we want to test? Many teachers select reading first, as that subject is somewhat basic and shows with most tests the reading age of each pupil. It is advisable, also, to determine what phase of the subject we want tested. Some tests are comprehensive and test several phases, while other tests check only certain phases of the subject. These questions should be carefully considered as an aid to the teacher in her selections. We should also discover the number of "forms" of equal difficulty which a particular test has. We should test somewhat early in the term, diagnose conditions carefully, apply remedial instruction where most needed, then retest toward the close of the term, to check the progress of teaching success definitely. This can be accomplished when the test selected has different forms of equal difficulty,

testing the same phase of subject-matter, but with different exercises.

The ease with which the tests can be given and the ease with which they can be scored and tabulated is another question to decide. Standardized tests vary considerably in this respect, so this problem should be studied. Many teachers prefer to score their own papers, as they are better able to diagnose their teaching problems. The cost of the tests is also an important item, with limited funds to use for this purpose. Some tests cost four times what others do. A good test is the most important problem, yet with equal values, the test with the lower cost will be the one most of us will select.

Another important item is the thoroughness with which the test has been prepared. Often we need expert judgment on this point. We may find tests, however, which have been prepared by experts or by efficient research laboratories with high professional standing. In that case we may be fairly certain that the test is reliable.

Testing Conditions.—The conditions for administering the standardized tests should be conducive to securing reliable results. In the first place, only competent persons should give them. Some tests are so easy to understand with the definite directions, and so easy to administer that many teachers with a little training can give them in a satisfactory manner. Directions must be carefully studied before each test is given. No tester should trust to memory as to exact details, no matter how frequently she has given this particular test. These directions must be followed exactly without any variation. No more and no less

explanations must be given the pupils than suggested in the manual of directions. The time noted for each test must be observed to the second. This requires a watch with a second hand. Some schools use a stop watch. This needs an accurate, honest individual to administer the tests. Teachers are so conscientious that they want their pupils to do well. One such teacher was found to be giving more assistance with a group intelligence test than the manual permitted. She wanted her pupils to stand high in intelligence, thinking unfavorable comparisons would be made. The tester should also observe a certain amount of quiet in the classroom, that the pupils are not disturbed. Generally it is best to have only the tester in the classroom while the test is being given. Some adults find it difficult to refrain from talking during a test. This should never be permitted while standardized tests are given. Many schools place a card, indicating testing, upon the classroom door, so that no one will enter during the testing periods. Most tests are in printed form, with all work performed upon them. Pupils will therefore need pencils, and a surplus should be provided. Many teachers have an extra pencil for each pupil, so that no time is lost when a pencil is broken or worn down. Other teachers have a surplus on their desk or in their hands, to avoid loss of time. Naturally all pencils should be carefully sharpened beforehand.

The tester should also consider the best time for giving tests. We should avoid starting a test when the pupils are tired from continued sitting. We should also avoid giving a test following a long play period when the pupils are overheated and physically tired. We should, furthermore, avoid starting a test which

cannot be finished before dismissal or play time. Pupils should not be disturbed by noise outside the classroom nor by the thought of being deprived of a part of their play time. If a teacher does not possess the personal qualifications for giving tests, she should not give them, as no amount of technical training will suffice for these personal qualities. Pupils should be natural. Pupils cannot work well in the presence of some individuals. This is especially true with young pupils, who generally work to the best advantage with a teacher to whom they are accustomed.

In primary grades, the author has often found it best to train each teacher to administer her own tests. To insure reliable conditions for administering the tests, some school systems (Oakland, for example) attempt to train one teacher in each school for testing purposes. This training includes University courses in Tests and Measurements selected under the guidance of the Research Department of the public school system. Later a representative from this department observes the teacher administer a test. When properly qualified, the teacher is granted a testing certificate by the Research Department. She then administers all of the individual tests, assists with all group tests, and has supervision of all testing records. While this is a considerable task, the teacher electing to assume it is especially interested in this work, and takes it as her share of the extra-classroom duties which she performs for the school.

All conditions, therefore, should be conducive to good work and accurate administering, that the results may be reliable.

Tabulation of Results.—The results of tests should

be graphically charted, that conditions may be vividly studied. A charting plan should be devised for the entire group. The tabulation represented by figure A is commonly used by teachers and is valuable in determining the ranking of pupils and in finding the median results. We can see not only the median but the number and the identity of the pupils above and below this median. This is valuable for the teacher for remedial planning, but it rarely should be posted for all pupils to inspect. Many pupils will always rank near the top and others may always rank near the bottom. The posting may develop superiority and inferiority complexes.

Various curves are also valuable in studying the results. The curves represented by figure B show different types of curves.

Individual graphs which the pupils make for their own permanent records are valuable in stimulating them to put forth their best efforts. A sample graph is shown by figure C. Each pupil makes his own graph and keeps it up-to-date. Often cross-section or graph paper is provided the pupils for this purpose.

A median is that point on the scale on either side of which are an equal number of cases.

Counting up to $*(70)$ you get seven cases. You need $10\frac{1}{2}$ ($\frac{1}{2}$ of 21); hence you need $3\frac{1}{2}$ more. These must come out of the next 5. That is, your median will be $70 + \frac{3\frac{1}{2}}{5}$ of 10 (10 is the value of your step) or 77.

As discussed elsewhere, the chronological classification of pupils is being considered seriously by progressive educators at the present time. This requires con-

FIGURE A
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

CLASS INTERVAL	FREQUENCIES
100-109	3
90- 99	3
80- 89	3
*70- 79	5
60- 69	2
50- 59	2
40- 49	1
30- 39	2
	21

siderable planning to meet the wide range of mental ages which would be present in every classroom. An enrichment of the curricula will be necessary for the accelerated and considerable drilling should be planned for the retarded. Possibly the most feasible plan would be minimum requirements for all with the "contract plan" of weekly or monthly assignments. This would be largely individual instruction with socialized opportunities of all in many phases of the programme. Analyzing figure D will show those pupils above the

heavy line as accelerated and those below this line as retarded. Many schools will show more variation from the norm than this figure indicates. The range in the sixth grade will be noted to be from eight years old to fifteen. The social problems here would be so great that chronological classification and modified curricula would seem to be the best solution. Many school systems not using this plan study carefully all pupils two or more years retarded or accelerated.

Non-standardized Tests.—The non-standardized tests are just what the term implies. They have not been worked out by experts and submitted to thousands of pupils in each grade for the purpose of standardizing results. No norms or averages have been established, hence, in their use no extensive comparisons can be made and nothing reliable can be accomplished in determining achievement ages. However, these tests have such distinct values over the standardized tests that they should extensively supplement them. In the first place, the individual teacher, in preparing these non-standardized tests, knows exactly what she wants to test. She wants to analyze her pupils' attainments, the curricula, and her own teaching efficiency. Preparing the testing material herself, she can more nearly direct the testing to her individual problems. She can thus adapt her testing programme to her teaching plans. She has no cost to handicap her testing and no elaborate data and descriptions to study.

The non-standardized tests may be considered under two classifications, the subjective and the objective types. The subjective type is often called the essay form. It was widely used until recently. It is subjective in character, that is, opinion enters into the evalua-

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FIGURE B
INDIVIDUAL WEEKLY SPELLING RESULTS
John Smith

No. of Words Correct	Jan. 10	Jan. 17	Jan. 24	Jan. 31	Feb. 7	Feb. 14
25						
24						
23						
22						
21						
20						
19						
18						
17						
16						
15						

FIGURE C
DISTRIBUTION AND FREQUENCY TABLE OF SCORES IN 20
ARITHMETIC PROBLEMS

NUMBER OF EXAMPLES CORRECT DISTRIBUTION CHART	PUPILS' RESULTS FREQUENCY CHART
20	6
19	5
18	10
17	11
16	20
15	16
14	14
13	6
12	5
11	1
	94 pupils

tion of the papers corrected. There is often no very definite key to assist the teacher. Different scorers may correct the papers in a very different manner and the same teacher may correct the same paper differently when tired or when refreshed. However, this type of test should not be discarded altogether, as it has some values. It gives the pupil an opportunity to organize his thinking. It also provides a splendid opportunity for English expression. When used, the teacher should eliminate as much of the subjective elements as possible. "Comparing" exercises with definite items to compare should be carefully considered. Discussing exercises without definiteness should be avoided. "Describing" exercises unless definitely outlined should also be avoided. It is much better to ask the pupils to evaluate the various Plans of Union than to ask them to describe or discuss them. Another good essay type of exercise might be to suggest a comparison of the Constitution policies of Jefferson and Hamilton.

The essay form of testing is lacking in value in limiting the scope which can be tested in one test. The correcting is often difficult and tedious, as the teacher may be required to do considerable reading to find real points. Bluffing may be resorted to by some pupils. It is a good plan to use both the subjective and the objective forms of the non-standardized tests, but the teacher should use considerable caution in basing a pupil's grade solely upon the essay test.

The other forms of the non-standardized tests are often spoken of as the new-type tests. They are objective with definite answers which are either right or wrong. Some of these tests are the "True-False" or "Yes and No," the "Completion," the "Multiple

Choice," the "Matching," the "Analogies or Judgment," and the "Selection" forms. Examples of these tests will be given in the chapter on Social Science. You may find them somewhat difficult at first to prepare, but a little practice will increase your proficiency with them quite rapidly. You will find that you can touch a wide range in the course with each test. The pupils will not be burdened by extensive writing and it will not consume much of your time in the correction of the papers. Both you and your pupils are likely to feel that greater justice can be done than with the exclusive use of the essay type.

There are several ways in which the objective, non-standardized exercises may be presented to the pupils. Possibly the best way is in mimeographed form. School clerks are now being provided in many schools, and in some cases this clerk is assigned to assist the teachers in preparing lesson material. Many principals wish their clerk to perform such duties, and one progressive city provides two clerks for each elementary school. One is the principal's assistant, and the other, called a junior clerk, is assigned to the teachers to do much of their bookkeeping and to prepare classroom material. This is a most advanced step. Every school should be provided with mimeograph or multigraphing equipment of some kind. Many teachers have found it to their advantage to learn to use such equipment in prepared classroom exercises. It is, therefore, best to provide each pupil with a copy of the material.

Other teachers write the testing exercise upon the blackboard, care being taken to avoid eye strain. Still other teachers suggest to the pupils the numbering of their papers to correspond with the numbering of the

test. They then read the exercise, one at a time, and the pupils write the answers.

The testing of instruction should be done systematically and thoroughly, and the competent use of the non-standardized tests will increase the teachers' efficiency considerably.

Useful Terminology.—It is not necessary for each classroom teacher to become proficient in the use of all terms and formulæ used by the expert statistician and research worker in education. It is important, however, for each teacher to be familiar with the most commonly used terms, and to use a few helpful formulæ in guiding her teaching problems. A few of these will now be discussed.

The term used by most teachers is the *Average*, sometimes called the *Arithmetic Mean*. This, of course, is found by adding the scores and dividing by the number taking the test, and is an accurate measure. The *Median* is seen in figure C. You will see that 94 pupils took the test, half of this number being 47. Counting up from the lowest number we shall find that the half-way point is somewhere in step 16, forty-two pupils being below this step. Subtracting 42 from 47, we have 5. When we consider the number of pupils scoring in this step, 20, we have a fraction of $5/20$ or $1/4$. The median, then, must be $1/4$ through 16, the number of examples correct. When we add this fraction to 16, we have $16\frac{1}{4}$, or expressed decimally, 16.25 which is the median. It would be well for you as a teacher to secure some test results, for the purpose of practising in obtaining the median.

The Achievement Age (A A) is another term quite commonly used. It is a pupil's age score which is re-

ceived upon an achievement test, and is frequently referred to as his achievement age.

The Achievement Quotient (A. Q.) is also commonly used in scientific testing. It shows the relationship between a pupil's score on an achievement test and what he should achieve. The formula generally used is

$$A. Q. = \frac{A. A.}{M. A.}$$

The Chronological Age is used in the abbreviated form, C. A.

The Co-efficient of Correlation (r) is a widely used term. This term is used to express a relationship between two variables. A perfect correlation is represented by a co-efficient of 1:00, and indicates that two variables are so related that the largest fact in one set can be paired with the largest fact in another set. The co-efficients of correlations range from 1:00 to +1.00. We speak of a positive correlation—high or low; a negative correlation, or a zero correlation.

Deviation is another term for the classroom teacher. It shows a spread of the scores from the central tendency.

Educational Age (E. A.) is the term used to indicate a pupil's average standing in a number of achievement tests.

The Intelligence Quotient (I. Q.) is one of the most extensively used terms. It is found by dividing the mental age by the chronological age. The formula is

$$I. Q. = \frac{M. A.}{C. A.}$$

Mode is that point on a scale at which there is the greatest number of cases in the frequency distribution.

Norm is the term used to indicate the average or median achievement attained by a large group of pupils of a given age or homogeneous grouping.

Percentile (*Per* or *P*).—This term is used to indicate the points which divide the total number of cases contained in a frequency distribution into 100 parts. For example, 25 per cent of all the cases in a certain distribution lie at or below the fourth percentile.

These scientific terms, while not complete, are useful to the teacher in reading the literature upon scientific measuring and in diagnosing her own teaching results. Because of the complexity of her work some of these terms and formulæ she may use for reference work only, not finding it necessary to commit all of them to memory.

As stated at the beginning of this chapter, it is essential to test scientifically, thoroughly, and systematically our instruction whenever practicable. Standardized tests can be used at the beginning of a teaching period to diagnose conditions, and at the close of the period to check progress. Non-standardized can well supplement the standardized tests during the term. Every teacher should have a definitely prepared programme of testing. In a general way this can be planned before the term begins, and modified in the light of conditions as the term progresses.

Suggestive Problems

1. Mrs. Smith, a very ambitious mother for her son, William, insists upon knowing William's Intelligence Quotient. How can you show her the harmful effects of giving out such information generally?
2. Make a suitable list of criteria for the selection of standardized tests.

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3. Secure a set of marked test papers. Work out the average; the median. Prepare a graph showing the spread of marks.
4. Make a list of ten true-false exercises on the content of this chapter; ten multiple-choice.
5. Prepare a progress chart suitable for some subject with a fifth grade class.
6. Outline a plan for applying the distribution curve to any class.
7. Arrange the subjects usually taught in an eighth grade according to their objectivity of marking.
8. Superior children often come from superior families. Why is this true?

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CHAPTER VII

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH EXPRESSION

Preview Questions

1. What skills must be especially taught in oral expression?
In written expression?
2. How may originality in English Expression be developed?
3. What values has puppetry?
4. What are the advantages of preceding drill by arousing enthusiasm for expression?

Why Teach English Expression?—We should have quite clearly in our minds the main reasons why different types of instruction are given. This definite information, when kept constantly before us, serves as a guide in the selection of content and in the methods of instruction to be used. The major objective for teaching English expression may be stated somewhat as follows:

To develop the ability and the desire to use fluent, effective, and pleasing expression, so that we may participate properly in all our social contacts.

The minor reasons for this instruction may be stated as follows:

1. Variety of expression.
2. Enrichment of vocabulary.
3. Correct diction.
4. Fluency of expression.
5. Organization of ideas.
6. Accurate spelling.
7. Clear, pleasing enunciation.
8. Correct pronunciation.

Suitable Techniques.—With clear, definite purposes in mind, we can now proceed to discuss various plans which we may use in the classroom for the realization of these aims. Many of our plans will take shape around the two main divisions of English expression, Oral English and Written Expression. Different abilities are necessary in these two forms of expression, as the processes are distinct. It is true that some elements are present in both forms, such as organization of ideas, correct diction, variety of expression, and enriched vocabulary, yet we also see elements which are not present in both forms. In written expression we attempt to use accurate diction, while in oral English we need clear enunciation and correct pronunciation, as well. It will, therefore, be necessary to discuss these two phases somewhat separately.

Oral English.—This phase of expression is used extensively both in school and outside, by all people. There is scarcely a normal person in any vocation who does not talk during his social and vocational contacts, while comparatively few persons do any writing, and that is largely in the form of letters. We might further say that some business and professional men perform this type of English expression by means of dictation, often holding the stenographer responsible for correct spelling and sentence structure. We all use oral expression continually, as it is our main means of communication with those with whom we come into direct contact. Furthermore, it is the child's first means of communication in the home and in the school. Oral English, therefore, may be said to be of more importance in daily life than written expression. This importance, as well as the various elements which are distinct from written

expression, constitute a real reason for special exercises and considerable emphasis upon oral English.

Types of Vocabulary.—The earliest and simplest form of oral communication is by means of words. As the child develops we are all much interested in his formation of sentences. The vocabularies used, therefore, are a basic element in oral expression, and later in written English. The use of the right word to express ideas accurately, and the variety of expression used, form important reasons for attention to vocabularies. The pupil as well as most adults may be said to have several types of vocabularies which are used on different occasions for means of communication. The simplest, and in most cases the most extensive vocabulary, is that used in speaking. The speaking vocabulary used by an individual is generally understood thoroughly by him. His choice of words is influenced by his ideas and his determination to be understood.

Another vocabulary is that used in reading. It is apt to be larger with most of us than our speaking vocabulary. We find many words in our reading which we may not use in our speaking, yet by their content we understand their meanings and uses. A very important objective in extensive silent reading of a wholesome nature is the enlargement and enrichment of our vocabulary. Another type of vocabulary is that used in listening. It might be called our listening vocabulary. A child constantly hears new and strange words which interest him to the extent that he tries to use them, and this increases his speaking vocabulary, although he often makes amusing mistakes. With adults we often hear unusual words in interesting lectures and discussions. The growing, developing, and learned person

ever seeks to learn the accurate meanings of these new words, so that they may become a part of his constantly increasing vocabulary.

The writing vocabulary is doubtless our smallest list of words in general use, as we must know how to spell such words correctly. The alert adult wants to learn the spelling of these new words, to assist him in his use of them. A knowledge of the correct spelling often assists us in our pronunciation and thorough understanding of the words because of root and derivative elements common to many words already known and used. We should endeavor to develop this habit and desire as early as possible with the pupils.

Technical Vocabularies.—This type of vocabularies is less common but necessary, to become familiar with certain specialized fields. One of the first tasks in beginning a study in new fields is to know the vocabulary peculiar to the field. This gives us a real motive for enlarging our vocabulary. Motivated exercises constitute one of the most effective methods we can use with pupils.

Exercises in Oral English.—We should plan intelligently our classroom practices, that abilities in the use of good oral English may be developed properly. One of the basic elements in all school procedures is to arouse genuine interests in pupils. This is especially true in oral expression, where the desire to tell something of interest to others should be cultivated by the teacher. Pupils should be so enthusiastic about certain information that they want to impart it in a pleasing, effective manner. We should be very cautious about ever super-imposing dry, uninteresting topics upon pupils for oral discussions.

Reproduction of Stories.—Story telling is one of our early exercises in the classroom, beginning in the kindergarten and early first grade. Here we plan to develop the sequence of stories and organization of ideas, as well as correct speech habits. The stories used are so intensely interesting that the pupils enjoy many retellings and continued listenings. The art of story telling may well be a valuable aim for the teacher herself. A good story teller is generally an interesting personality. Story telling is so valuable in oral English that it may well be used in grades above the primary department.

Dramatization.—This is another very valuable means of arousing genuine interests in oral English. Dramatization has already been discussed from the standpoint of oral reading, in a preceding chapter. There are several other phases of dramatization, however. The original production is one of the most valuable means of connecting original written English with speech work. Pupils enjoy dramatizing stories, literature, and certain thrilling scenes from their history and civics. The play thus produced may be a composite one in which most of the pupils participate, or it may be produced by an individual pupil. Both types are valuable, yet the composite play brings in and develops more talent, and it is likely to arouse more genuine interest. A valuable means of arousing a degree of interest conducive to a high-type production is that of having all of the girls produce one original play and all of the boys another. Another device which may be used successfully is to have groups of pupils concentrate upon certain acts or scenes.

Puppetry.—Both children and adults thoroughly en-

joy the making of puppets, the writing of plays in which to use these puppets, and the final giving of the production. Puppetry takes the centre of the pupil's attention from himself to the puppet. This is a valuable principle in all oral English, as self-consciousness must be overcome. Puppetry broadens his interest in many school subjects, such as literature, social science, spelling, art, and construction work, and many phases of oral expression. This kind of oral English thus provides for clear articulation and a pleasing, appropriate voice, to convey to the audience the play in a most vivid manner. The following detailed directions will be found helpful to teachers in preparing puppets:

HOW TO MAKE PUPPET HEADS OF PAPIER-MACHÉ

TOOLS AND MATERIALS

Modelling clay well dampened. Gladding McBean, San Francisco.

Armature—A piece of wood 6" by 1" by 1" nailed upright in the centre of a square block of wood $\frac{1}{2}$ " by 4" by 4".

Modelling tool with knife-like edge on one end, a spoon-like shape on the other end.

Paraffine brush and pan.

Glue brush.

Glue pot.

Shellac and shellac vessel.

Straight saw.

Large spoons for stirring paste and dipping plaster of Paris.

Pans for the paste (large).

Le Page's glue.

Paperhanger's dry paste.

Small brushes for pasting.

Paper towels.

Plaster of Paris.

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Wood (sugar pine $1\frac{1}{4}$ " square). E. P. Lux, Milvia Street, Berkeley, Calif.

Show card colors for scenery.

Small brushes for show card colors.

Fuller's oil paints for faces of puppets.

Brushes for oil paints.

White Japan dryer.

Turpentine.

Sloyd knife.

Muslin for back drops.

Alcohol for thinning shellac (denatured alcohol).

Silk floss, wool yarn or unravelled hemp rope, for hair.

Several rolls of heavy black cloth tape $\frac{3}{4}$ " wide.

One cake of paraffine.

Oil colors: Chrome yellow (light), ivory black, burnt sienna, carmine No. 2, vermilion No. 1, cerulean blue, zinc white, cadmium yellow (medium).

Dekorato paints: Light blue, dark blue, medium blue, orange, yellow, vermilion, white, black, light green, magenta.

Prang show-card paints (tempera) are very good.

PREPARATORY STEPS FOR MODELLING THE PUPPET'S FACE

Reference: *The Human Figure* by Vanderpoel

Before modelling the puppet head in clay, it is well to know something of the anatomy of the human head. There are several important bone structures that give shape to the head. They are:

(1) The frontal bone giving the forehead a perpendicular position, slightly curved backward at the crown, and forming a very small dip into the skull where it joins the bridge of the nose.

(2) The nasal bone which grows out of the curve of the frontal bone. It is a very small bony protuberance on which cartilage and flesh fasten themselves in many shapes.

(3) The jaw bones, falling perpendicularly from the base of the nasal bone, forming the structural shape of the mouth.

(4) The chin bone, giving definite shape to the lower extremity of the face, and being capable of many varieties.

(5) The lower jaw bone joining the chin bone and sloping upward in a rounded curve to the lobe of the ear.

(6) The cranium, or rounded receptacle which gives the upper end of the head a dome-like shape.

(7) The orbits enclosing the eyes.

(8) The mastoid, back of the ear.

The study of the profile of a skeleton head will be of invaluable benefit to the student in the modelling process. Many types of heads may be modelled on the above structure.

DIMENSIONS OF THE HEAD

Generally speaking, the eyes fall half way between the crown and the tip of the chin. The base end of the nose falls half way between the eye line and the tip of the chin. A line drawn horizontally through the eye and extended backward, will lie half way between the crown and the chin tip. A line drawn perpendicular to the horizontal line, dividing it into two equal parts, will, at the crossing point, place the upper curve of the ear. The lower ear curve falls on a line drawn horizontally through the lower base of the nose. The human head shows most development above the horizontal line. As this develops, the lower back of the head recedes into the nape of the neck.

The same bony structure exists in the lower animals as in the higher—but their relative positions differ. Animals carry their heads horizontally, while the human head is carried perpendicularly. Most of the development of the animal head falls below the horizontal line. The large muzzle projects from the skull, below the horizontal line. The nose is flattened upon the muzzle at right angles to the jaw. The lower jaw and the embryo chin extend proportionately from the throat. The lower animal has a low sloping head, a flat nose, and a rudimentary chin.

Exercise: Practice drawing the profile of a head on paper before beginning to model a head in clay.

MODELLING

Begin to build the clay about the neck of the armature, using small bits of clay at a time. Be sure that fingers and clay are always wet.

Build the head about the neck, bit by bit.

Add the nose by pressing on the egg shape a bit of clay moulded into the shape of a triangular prism. Merge the joint by carefully pressing and modelling together. Try to keep the modelling in planes for the sake of making later tasks in the construction easier.

Place the ears of the puppet. Fasten elongated, shell-shaped bits of clay to the head, in line with the nose.

Eyesockets—Press the thumbs into the clay below the forehead.

Eyeballs—Model a bit of clay into a button and place in the socket.

Hollow Eyes and Half-Closed Lids—Use half the adobe button.

Eyebrows—A small roll of clay curved over the eye.

Chin—Model a ball of clay and stick it on the chin end of the head. Press and shape it for the character you desire.

Hair—May be of yarn, theatrical hair, or modelled. For modelled hair, roll a bit of clay into a long chubby worm and curl it into a compound curve. Lay this on the puppet's head and merge it into the skull. Put several of these curls on.

Lips—Very small rolls of clay suitably shaped and laid in the proper place. A line passing through outer edge of lips slopes backward.

Imperfections—May be smoothed out by using small modelling tools made of wood, some with flat blades and some with blunt blades.

Finishing touches—Flatten into planes if possible, building up, taking off, working not too seriously, until the head has plausible proportions according to the character it is to represent.

Wrap in a wet towel to prevent it from drying. The clay must always stay damp.

Reference book: *The Human Figure*, by Vanderpoel.

THE PLASTER OF PARIS CAST

Pour about three cups of water into a washpan.

With a large spoon, lightly sprinkle plaster of Paris into the water over its entire surface. Do not stir. Keep sprinkling until the plaster of Paris comes to the surface of the water. This avoids bubbles and indicates the proper proportions of water and plaster.

Stir carefully to avoid bubbles.

First Coat—Hold clay model in hand by armature base. Quickly pour the above solution over the model, using the spoon, until it is entirely covered by a thin coat.

Second Coat—When the plaster has become slightly thicker (like very thin molasses) cover the model, using the spoon as before. Keep turning the model to keep the plaster evenly distributed.

Third Coat—By this time the plaster is quite thick. Work very quickly, putting large masses of plaster over the head, spreading it out with a spoon, being sure to have the plaster coating about $\frac{1}{2}$ " thick over every portion.

Caution—Mark the front and back of the head before putting on the plaster.

Cleaning the Pan—Scrape out the pan before the plaster grows hard. Do not put the old plaster in the sink. It causes trouble in the plumbing.

REMOVING THE CAST FROM THE CLAY MODEL

Draw a straight line down the side of the mold, being careful to draw it in front of the ears. Remove the armature.

(Note: If the nose and chin are very hooked, it will be wiser to draw the line through the nose and chin. This makes the next process much easier. Example: Punch in *Punch and Judy*.)

Wet the blade of the saw and begin to saw through the plaster of Paris mold, being careful to keep the blade on the pencil line. If the saw gets stuck, pour a small amount of water down the slit. The mold is now in two portions.

Scoop out the clay with a spoon or with the blunt end of the modelling tool, taking care not to scratch the mold.

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Wash the inside of the mold very carefully. Turn over to drain. Paint the inside and edges of the mold with melted paraffine. Do not make this layer thick.

THE PAPIER-MACHÉ PROCESS

Paste—Mix paperhanger's paste and cold or warm water until it is the consistency of thick molasses. Pour enough Le Page's glue into the paste to give it a soft tan color.

(Note: An excess of glue in the paste will cause the mask to dry in a wrinkled condition. This can be used to advantage in making old people, but should be avoided in others.)

Paper towels—Tear paper towels crosswise into long $\frac{1}{2}$ " strips, and into irregular parallelograms about the size of a square inch. Dip the long strips into water and lay them on one side. Keep the inch squares dry in another pile.

First Coat—Paint the inside of the paraffined mold with a coat of paste. Lay strips of the wet paper covered with paste, with the edges slightly overlapping, over the inside of the mold. Keep these strips running in the same direction. Have no wrinkles in this layer, for it forms the skin of the puppet head.

Second Coat—Brush over the first layer with paste. Now lay strips of wet paper perpendicular to the first strips, using the same care in placing. Coat with paste.

Third Coat—Pick up a dry inch square with brush and slap it in over the strips. Coat with paste. Keep doing this until all the strips are covered.

Fourth and Fifth Coats—Proceed as with the third coat. It is a good plan to stop here and press paper lightly into the depression of the mold with fingers and thumb.

(Note: Be sure that each coat extends far up over the edge of the mold, forming a sort of fringe.)

Drying—Lay in the sun to dry. Some people dry the masks in the oven, but one must be very careful lest they dry too quickly or burn. They may also be dried face down over an electric heater. Sufficient paste must be used throughout else the different layers will not stick together.

Separating the Mask from the Mold—When dry, the mask may be lifted out of the mold without any trouble because it

has shrunk slightly. If any part is torn through sticking to the mold, brushing over with paste and smoothing the texture of the layers will make the puppet presentable.

JOINING THE TWO HALVES TOGETHER

The Neck or Core—Have a piece of wood (sugar pine) $\frac{1}{4}$ " square and $\frac{1}{2}$ " longer than the distance between the top of the head and the end of the neck. With a $\frac{3}{4}$ " bit bore a hole up the neck of wood to within 1" of the end. This is easy to do if the piece of wood is clamped in a vice.

To Prepare the Neck or Core—Whittle the core until it fits smoothly and evenly the top of the head and the neck.

The Two Halves of the Mask—Trim away the margin or fringe of the mask with the knife or scissors. Fit the halves together, trimming and cutting away until the joint is smooth and without irregularities.

The Neck and the Mask—Run the neck up into the mask until it fits. Drive two small nails through the skull of the mask into the rounded end of the stick of wood. Wind strong string around the neck of the mask about five times. Tie into a knot. This serves the purpose of preventing the neck of the dress from slipping down.

Finishing Touches—With melted carpenter's glue, paste small bits of paper towels over the crack between the two halves of the mask. Make this as neat as possible. Dry.

PAINTING THE FACE

Give the head a coat of shellac. Dry. Wash brush in alcohol.

The following suggestions were given for painting the mask of a young man:

Use the same rule for make-up as you would use in making up for the stage.

Draw the features on the mask in lead pencil, experimenting to get the expression you want.

Flesh or Base Color—White, cadmium yellow, burnt sienna. Let it dry. This coat fills the pores. (For women use chrome yellow and white.) Mix with a few drops of white Japan

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dryer and as much turpentine as is necessary to make a thin solution before applying this coat.

EYES

The position of the pupil in the eye-space gives variety of expression and character to the eye. Let the student experiment with a lead pencil before painting, by drawing the pupils in various positions.

Paint the pupils with black mixed with burnt sienna. A tiny bit of cerulean blue and zinc white is used for the iris. Zinc white is painted on either side of the iris. Paint a bit of vermillion in the corner of the eye next to the nose.

Paint the eyebrows with black mixed with burnt sienna. The same mixture of color is used to outline the eyes. Paint a slight touch of the color in the nostrils. Long lashes painted above the wide open eye give the look of innocence and prettiness.

Eye-shadows—Carmine with a little blue and flesh color will give lavender for shadow around the eyes.

Lips—Paint the lips vermillion, using great care to give the lip line character.

For the cheeks, chin, end of the nose, and forehead, paint with burnt sienna to work in a deeper color. Put red in the cheeks if you wish.

(Note: Light yellow is for princesses' complexions. Eyelashes may be painted around the eyes to give a pretty, innocent expression.)

Hands—Paint hands at same time as face, using flesh color with a little red or burnt sienna in the palms.

Hair—In painting modelled hair, paint shadows in depressions. By adding black to the color of the hair, shadows in the depression of the modelled hair can be made. For raised portions of the modelled hair, mix cadmium yellow or white. This gives the highlights.

(Note: Gesso may be used to build up hair or imperfections in the features. It has the disadvantage of cracking off, however, with any amount of usage. Gesso is a poor makeshift. It is better to build the mask in a properly molded cast.)

Finishing Touches—Give the face and head a light coat of paraffine. This softens the texture of the skin and takes away the shine of the shellac and the oil paints.

(Note: If the mold has no hair, make a wig of yarn, rope, silk thread, or theatrical hair.)

(Note: Small, bright, brass-headed tacks in the centre of the pupil of the eye will be splendid highlights.)

THE HANDS

Have two pieces of inch square pine 2" long.

Draw outlines of the right and left hands on these pieces of pine.

Whittle away the triangle which comes between the thumb and the forefinger. Then shape the hands, with knife, rather crudely, to resemble a half-closed mitten. Cut fingers or not as you choose.

Shellac the hands. Cut a small groove around the wrist.

Have ready a cylinder of cardboard that fits over the wrist. You should be able to slip your thumb or second finger into this cylinder.

Have ready a piece of unbleached muslin about 8" by 6".

Brush the wrist and groove with carpenter's glue.

Wrap the narrow width of the unbleached muslin about the wrist, being careful to make the middle of the lengthwise piece fall over the groove.

Wind heavy carpet thread around the groove. This will hold the muslin in place.

Slip the cylinder cardboard over the new cylindrical muslin until it meets the groove. Draw the muslin covering the hand over the cardboard cuff, until it meets the opposite edge of the cloth which comes from inside the cuff. Sew together neatly.

Sew cloth tape about 3" long to the cuff of each hand, being careful that 2" hang loose to form the arm of the puppet.

THE BODY OF THE PUPPET

The palm of the puppeteer's hand forms the torso of the puppet. A small bag is fastened to the head and arm of the

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puppet by means of tapes. The puppeteer grasps this bag with his third and fourth fingers merely as a support for the fingers.

The Bag—For a medium-sized puppet, the bag should be about 4" by 6". Stuff with cotton or sawdust.

To fasten the bag to the head: Cut a groove around the neck about $\frac{1}{4}$ " from the edge. Have ready two lengths of $\frac{3}{4}$ " tape (black preferably) about 4" long. Glue the tape to the sides of the neck. Tie in place by winding thread in the groove three or four times. Fasten the other ends of the tape to the front of the bag, being careful to adjust lengths according to the shape and length of the puppeteer's hands and fingers.

To fasten the arms to the bag: Exercise the same caution in the adjustment of the arms as with the adjustment of the head.

THE DRESS OF THE PUPPET

The upper half of the costume must stamp the puppet as a man or woman. Any ordinary costume with a skirt will suffice. The feet of hand puppets are never seen. Sew a brass ring to the bottom of the skirt in the back. Hang the puppet by the ring to the puppet rail when not in use.

BIRD AND ANIMAL PUPPETS

Bird and animal puppets are usually carved entirely from sugar pine, and they are held up into the scene by a wire attached to the body. Mouths or jaws of such creatures as wolves, lions, or birds are jointed so that they move. A rubber band holds the jaws tightly together. A string attached to the jaw hangs down; pulling this string opens the mouth. Wings, tails, and ears are manipulated from below by strings in the same manner. Each animal is a separate problem in itself.

Animals can be made with wooden or papier-maché heads, with fur costumes, and they can be manipulated by using the forefinger in the head, and the thumb and

second finger in the paws. Cats and rabbits are adaptable in this fashion.¹

Talent.—Dramatization of various kinds is so valuable that all pupils should become so interested that participation is keenly desired by the entire group. Rarely should a star be developed and repeatedly used for exploitation and entertainment purposes. It is so easy to develop stars, to exploit pupils, and to entertain an audience that caution should be observed by the teacher. Pupils should be natural—*never* spoiled. Even the reticent pupil should be brought out and developed. He needs this type of work more than the pupil who is talented in this field. Furthermore, it is an excellent plan to have pupils take parts which they do not perform naturally, as certain types of abilities should be developed where most needed. For example, the pupil who does not take a dignified part easily should be encouraged to assume this rôle occasionally. Thus we see that the characteristics of pupils should be studied intelligently, that dormant qualities may be developed.

Finished Plays.—We should study carefully the degree of success which we want a finished production to have. We should rarely strive for a finished play so produced that no flaw is apparent to the keen observer of dramatics. Finished, polished productions take considerable time and drill by an expert in this field. This time and drill may not be justifiable from the standpoint of developing talent and naturalness in the entire group of pupils. Many plays in which the pupils are encouraged to use their own initiative may be far more

¹ Courtesy Miss Jessie Casebolt, San Francisco State Teachers College, *Theatre and School*, Vol. VIII, No. 5, February, 1930.

beneficial from an educational standpoint, than the finished production which represents largely the teacher's thought and effort.

Play Library.—The original play is likely to have more educational value than the prepared production, as it develops more originality, and will generally bring in more interests and a greater variety of school subjects. Teachers, however, may be interested in some valuable books of plays. Following is such a list:

PLAY LIBRARY

- The Swan.* Longmans, Green & Co.
Komasi. Longmans, Green & Co.
The Queen's Husband. Longmans, Green & Co.
The Evening. Longmans, Green & Co.
Sun Up. Longmans, Green & Co.
Alice in Wonderland. Longmans, Green & Co.
Icebound. Longmans, Green & Co.
Enter Madame. Longmans, Green & Co.
The Doctor of Lonesome Folk. Longmans, Green & Co.
Jazz and Minuet. Longmans, Green & Co.
Old Walnut. Longmans, Green & Co.
The Real Gloria. Row, Peterson & Co.
Behind the Throne. Row, Peterson & Co.
In the Octagon. Row, Peterson & Co.
Big Time. Row, Peterson & Co.

Growth of the Drama.—Interest in the drama seems to be increasing rapidly. This interest is evidenced by its place in the modern school. California seems to be taking an active interest in the drama in its schools, as 112 of her 388 senior high schools have special courses in oral English with dramatics as a basis for much of the work. This work is so popular that more students elect to take it in some high schools than can be accom-

modated. In Ohio we find 650 of its 1250 high schools with definite work in dramatics. Miss Evans, of the University of Iowa, in a questionnaire study found only one-fifth of the schools reporting with no dramatics. She found 7000 schools with such courses, with 50 or more pupils enrolled, and 13,000 dramatic clubs. In higher education we see research work in dramatics leading to the degree of Master of Arts. In the elementary field we are very likely developing an interest and a high type of work with equal success.

Drill.—The new type school requires drill as did the old school, yet our present day drill is apt to be more motivated and scientifically prepared than was formerly the situation. Pupils often need definite drill upon clear enunciation and correct pronunciation. Such exercises were discussed in the chapter upon oral reading. They may frequently be used in connection with oral English. Pride in the use of clear, articulate speech should be developed with all pupils. Pride, interest, and enthusiasm are valuable assets in all of our classroom practices.

Written English.—The teaching of written expression supplements the teaching of oral English. The processes in the use of these two forms of expression are different in some respects, and yet they have many common elements. As in oral English, the pupil must have a real desire to express himself. He must have something to tell, and a genuine desire to express it in clear English. We must, therefore, arouse an interest and an enthusiasm for expression. This can rarely be done in the elementary field by superimposed topics to prepare in written discourse. The topic must be a live topic for the pupil. It must appeal to him so intensely

that he will want to know all about the topic, and then he will have a strong desire to express this information in correct, effective English, knowing that the readers will not secure his real meaning unless his diction is clear, pleasing, and correct. It is first necessary to discover the pupils' interests, background, and social environment, to ascertain the interests and types of information already possessed. This knowledge concerning the background of the pupils can be revealed by socialized discussions in which the teacher skillfully brings out the pupils, and yet intelligently finds latent interests and possibly real talents.

Another necessary step may be the wise guidance of the pupils, to secure valuable information to supplement and to enrich their present ideas. This additional information may be secured by observation or by motivated reading. Still another step is that of frequently assisting the pupils in the organization of these ideas into some logical sequence of arrangement. This step may well be followed by discussions as to correct diction and the learning of facts concerning correct forms. Drill is necessary to fix correct expression habits.

The Use of Technical Grammar.—The need of exercises to acquire facts concerning correct diction brings up the question of the teaching of technical grammar. This is a controversial question in educational fields. It has been such for some time, and it is likely to continue into the future. The teacher as well as the committees preparing courses of study in English for the elementary schools should consider several phases of this question. One important question is the object of instruction in technical grammar. There was

a time when many advocated such instruction in the elementary field, as an aid to the mastery of foreign languages in the secondary field. This justification for technical grammar instruction seems to be on the wane, because of lack of uniform nomenclature in grammar instruction, because of a difference in grammatical construction in the foreign languages, and because foreign language study is an elective subject with many students.

If there is no justification of technical grammar instruction in the elementary field as an aid to the study of foreign languages later, then we have but one phase of the question to consider. A knowledge of grammar is an aid to the use of good English expression. Is it an aid? This seems to be the crux of the present controversy. Personal experience and opinion will hardly answer this question adequately. Because some adults have been taught technical grammar, and this instruction is now an aid to them in their use of English is not conclusive that this is the only method by which accurate usage can be taught and correct habits can be developed. This leaves us with but one avenue of approach to the question, that of scientific data. Fortunately, we have the results of scientific studies to guide us in our thinking. Briggs made an interesting study¹ to determine the effect of such instruction. He took two rooms of pupils and taught them for a period of six months, for the purpose of experimentation. With one room he began the teaching of formal grammar, and continued it for three months, followed by a three months' period of language instruction. With the

¹ Briggs, Thomas A., "Formal English Grammar as a Discipline," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. XIV, 1913, No. 4.

other group of pupils he reversed the order of instruction. He devised fifty-four tests which he used at the beginning, the middle, and the end of the six months' period, to test the pupils' gain in reasoning ability. He found that the gain in reasoning ability was about the same with each group, while the second group gained more in its ability to correct language errors. In his conclusion he states that, "As a result of this experiment it may safely be asserted that these particular children after the amount of formal grammar that they had, do not as measured by the means employed, show in any of the abilities tested, improvement that may be attributed to their training in formal grammar."

Starch¹ made an interesting study in 1916 with university juniors and seniors and with high school pupils. As a result of this study Starch concluded that a student's knowledge of grammar may be greatly increased by his study of foreign languages, but it only slightly increases his use of correct English.

Asker² made another study still more illuminating for our purposes. He tested approximately three hundred freshmen at the University of Washington, using the Starch Language Scales. Grammatical Scale A was used for correctness of sentences; English Test 1 for parts of speech; English Test 3 for modes and tenses of verbs. He found that a knowledge of grammar only slightly contributed to correct English usage—that such habits were determined more by general intelligence. His conclusion is very interesting:

¹ Starch, Daniel, "Further Experimental Data on the Value of Studying Foreign Languages," *School Review*, Vol. XXV, 1917, pp. 243-48.

² Asker, William, "Does Knowledge of Formal Grammar Function?" *School and Society*, Vol. XVII, 1923, pp. 109-111.

"The facts of this investigation show, then, that knowledge of formal grammar influences ability to judge the grammatical correctness of a sentence and ability in English composition only to a negligible degree. As the number of cases involved is large enough to be a fair representation of conditions in general, we may therefore be justified in the conclusion that time spent upon formal grammar in the elementary school is wasted as far as the majority of students is concerned, and that teachers of English composition must seek some other reason for the alleged generally poor ability in this subject than the neglect of formal grammar in the grade school."

We may safely conclude from such studies that a knowledge of technical grammar is unnecessary. Although it may be advisable and helpful in some instances, certainly the study of long, involved sentence structure purely as mental discipline has no place in the elementary school. As a knowledge of grammar seems to be of doubtful value as contributing to correct English usage, we may well leave its study to those schools where they feel that it is valuable.

Other experiments seem to show quite conclusively that the actual writing may well precede a study of correct form. When we observe this arrangement, we are using the principle of interest, as we have the pupils express themselves because of an urge to do so. The corrections and refinements may well come after the actual expression periods. An Oakland principal¹ tried a small and somewhat unscientific experiment which others may wish to repeat. In two of his fourth grade rooms he secured some written productions on "Christmas." In one room careful instruction was given in spelling, punctuation, and sentence structure before any

¹ William Briscoe, Principal, Morris E. Cox School.

writing was done. In the other room the pupils discussed Christmas in its various aspects, without any instruction in correct usage, and then and there wrote about Christmas. The number of English errors in the two rooms was approximately equal, but there was no comparison as to interest in writing, the pupils of the first room showing little zeal in their productions. A comparison of content was clearly in favor of the second room.

Socializing Activities.—Written English can be taught best when motivated, and this motivation can best be supplied by carefully guided activities upon a socialized basis. When the pupils write for a real classroom purpose, they are enthusiastic in producing it. They see a motive for doing something worth while. Friendship letters describing interesting activities or places visited are a valuable classroom exercise in letter writing. We all know that letter writing is an art which may well be cultivated in the classroom.

Original Writing.—The basic principles for developing initiative and originality have been discussed in the chapter upon Creative Education. These principles may well apply in original written productions. It is not our purpose to produce talented writers in every instance, but to provide a real pleasure which will increase ability in writing. Assigned topics may well give way to suggested themes, and these should be commonplace and within the pupils' experiences. Pupils are very susceptible to suggestions, and like to try their abilities. Careful studies of elegant forms, interesting descriptions, and the oral reading of poetry will often arouse within pupils a genuine desire to try their hand in writing. Reading such productions to one another or having

them printed in the school and town newspapers will frequently be a real urge to the pupils.

Following are some productions which pupils have written when they wanted to write:

1. THE LIFE OF A BEE

(WRITTEN BY AN EIGHT-YEAR-OLD BOY.)

I am Mr. Bee and I live in a hive. I live on honey from the flowers. Now I suppose you want to know why I have a stinger, well I will tell you. A bee has to have something to defend himself with so I sting when those horrible two-legged things come around, especially boys.

2. FAIRY VILLAGE

(WRITTEN BY A NINE-YEAR-OLD BOY.)

I was in Fairy Land. I saw a fairy house. It was made out of a rose. The fairy took the inside of this rose out and made a wall around the village. One day the fairies were dancing when a million dwarfs came and stole them all away. When the brownie guards saw this they ran to their aeroplanes. Their aeroplanes were bees and their cannons were the bees' stingers. The brownie guards and soldiers took them all back to Fairy Land.

3. AN OLD MAN'S SOLILOQUY

(WRITTEN BY A THIRTEEN-YEAR-OLD GIRL.)

On the train, in a soft red-plush cushion is seated an old man whose paraphernalia consists of many gardening implements, among them a lawn-mower, a hose, a hoe, a can of gasoline, and several other small articles. He is old and tired-looking, but he possesses a face that is aglow with the interest he extends to the pamphlet he is reading. It appears to be an article on gardening, perhaps secured from the Agricultural Department of the U. S. Government.

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This little old gentleman looks as though he may have spent the greater part of his life toiling in a dry and dusty city and the lure of fresh, green fields, clear skies, babbling brooks, singing birds, and all the other pleasant things which one associates with the country have been so enticing that he has decided to change his place of living from the hustle and bustle of city life to the quiet of the country and he is now journeying, as he supposes, to the land of peace and happiness.

4. WHEN I GROW UP

(WRITTEN BY A 10½-YEAR-OLD GIRL.)

When I grow up to be a man,
You'll just see what I'll do if I can,
I'd sail on the ocean so blue,
And then come back and see you.
I might be an aviator,
And go up into the sky,
And go flying very high.
Just wait till I grow up to be a man
You'll just see what I'll do if I can.

5. THE BIG PARADE

(WRITTEN BY A NINE-YEAR-OLD BOY ON THE EVENING
OF CIRCUS DAY.)

Five big officers and two big bands;
Fifty big soldiers with guns in their hands;
Two big lions who were fierce indeed;
One big General who was in the lead;
One big clown with a funny face,
With a big hat which was trimmed in lace;
Two big leopards who were ready to leap,
And when night time comes they will be fast asleep;
Peanuts, popcorn, and pink lemonade,
And that is the end of the big parade.

6. NATURE CALLS

(WRITTEN BY A THIRTEEN-YEAR-OLD GIRL.)

Words cannot express our feeling,
 Pen can never write or tell
 Of the thoughts that stir our being
 When we watch the rise and swell
 Of the tide on rock-bound sea-coast
 Where the lonely sea-birds dwell.
 How a peace past understanding
 Comes to us from sunset's glow
 As we watch its changing colors
 Slowly into shadows grow,
 Leaving just a touch of sadness
 As we watch the glory go.
 Mystic mountains, reaching skyward,
 Awesome in their rugged height,
 Sentinels for unknown ages
 Unscarred by time's endless flight,
 Inspire all who view their grandeur
 With majesty and might.
 But there is a joy in hearing
 Rippling laughter of the stream
 As it plays with mossy pebbles,
 As with life it seems to teem,
 Dancing through the aisles of sunlight
 Bordered with the living green.

7. THE CHANGING SEA

(WRITTEN BY A TWELVE-YEAR-OLD GIRL.)

The sea is rough and wild tonight;
 It rages along the shore,
 Like a great and terrible monster
 That lived in the days of yore.
 Why do you try to frighten me so,
 As you dash against the rocky shore?

Why are you so gentle now,
 After your troubled night?
 Is there some wonderful magic power,
 That hides just out of sight?
 That causes you to always be
 That wonderful changing mystery?

8. A FUNNY CLOCK

(WRITTEN BY AN ELEVEN-YEAR-OLD GIRL.)

When Mr. Dandelion is very old
 By his fussy head the time can be told,
 "And just by blowing off his head
 You can tell the time," my mother said.
 His head isn't made of wood like clocks,
 But of fuzzy stuff which the wind likes to rock.
 But I think he's much nicer than an old wooden clock
 Even though he hasn't figures and can't say "Tick, Tock."

The Teaching of Spelling.—The accurate use of written English includes the habit of correct spelling. Many elements contribute to degrees of ability to spell correctly. The psychological bases of learning to spell should be considered intelligently by the teacher. These psychological principles may be classified as follows:

1. The visualization method is one of the most common devices used in learning to spell, and is probably one of the most effective. Many pupils may be said to be visual-minded. They receive vivid mental impressions by seeing. This should be capitalized in teaching the pupils how to spell and in developing the habit of carefully scrutinizing new words. Many intelligent adults have this habit well developed. Visualizing a word mentally after seeing it is a valuable aid in learning to spell correctly.

2. Another psychological principle is the vocalization of words. This makes use of the auditory sense, which in some pupils is developed to a smaller degree than the visual sense. It is also a valuable aid, and should be developed as a supplement to other psychological avenues.

3. The motorization or the writing of words is another means of learning to spell. It often helps in checking correct spellings to write the words for the purpose of seeing them. Teachers should use all three principles in developing correct spelling habits.

Spelling Devices. The teacher should realize that spelling must be taught as intelligently and thoroughly as any other subject. We should realize the distinction between teaching and testing spelling. The former includes carefully guided study upon difficult syllables, unusual sounds, and common errors. The latter may be the mere dictation of words for testing purposes. The teaching is fully as valuable as the testing, and frequently should require the major amount of time, and careful planning.

A valuable plan in common use has the following distinct steps:

1. All the words for the week are given to the pupils on Monday. These words include the new words for the week and the most difficult words of the preceding week. Under the careful guidance of the teacher the pupils look over these words for unusual sounds, meanings, and difficulties. The words are then dictated to the pupils, who make up a study list of the words misspelled.

2. Tuesday is spent by many teachers as a study day upon these words, the teacher devoting considerable

time in working with pupils requiring individual assistance.

3. On Wednesday the week's words are again dictated and corrected. The pupils requiring no further study upon these words are excused from spelling on Thursday.

4. On Thursday the teacher may devote all of the time to further individual assistance and to testing the pupils.

5. On Friday all pupils are again tested upon all of the words presented to the pupils on Monday. This plan may be varied to suit the needs of the class, yet several items in this plan may well be used by all teachers. The teaching of spelling with individual assistance is valuable. A review of difficult words of the preceding week should be planned. Some teachers also have a carefully planned monthly review. The examination of certain pupils not requiring continual study upon known words should also be included in our plans.

Selection of Words.—The teacher should be most careful in the selection of the words to be used in the spelling lessons. In the first place, it is doubtful as to the wisdom of including in our spelling lists any words not used by the pupils in their written work at the present time, or words which they should not have in their constantly increasing written vocabulary very soon. The number of words used in spelling lessons in the elementary school may well be limited to approximately 3000 commonly used words and their modified forms. In the selection of the words to study in spelling, we may well use two sources, the carefully prepared spellers and the words chosen from the pupils' other subjects and used in written work. It should be

kept in mind that all words used in other subjects need not be studied in spelling as the pupils may not have any occasion to use all such words in their written work. This is especially true with geographical terms and historical names. Such words may well be limited to the most commonly used, such as the prominent city, county, state, and national, and possibly the names of a few of our most noted men and women. Good spelling books may be used to advantage also, as they are well prepared at the present time by experts in spelling. These experts have scientifically selected and graded the words, in most cases much more efficiently than any of us could do.

Criteria for Judging Spelling Efficiency.—We should judge our teaching of spelling intelligently. Following is a list of questions which we might well consider in checking our success in this field.

1. Have we developed the habit of looking carefully at unusual words and difficult syllables of words to be spelled?

2. Does efficiency in spelling carry over to common words used in all of the pupils' written work? Should we not base a pupil's grade in spelling upon this habit, fully as much as upon his ability to spell during the spelling period?

3. Have we taught sufficiently the principles of capitalizations, contractions, compound words, and the use of abbreviations?

4. Have we taught the pupils to use the dictionary to help them in their spelling? Lessons on the use of the dictionary will be found in the next chapter.

5. Do the pupils have the habit and the desire of self-correction in all their written work?

6. Are we providing for a constantly increasing and enriched written vocabulary?

Tests for Written Expression.—Standardized tests should be used to diagnose accurately our teaching problems in written expression. A few of the most commonly used tests will now be listed.

1. The New York English Survey Tests.

Test *a*, Language usage, is suitable for grades IV to VIII.

Test *b*, Sentence structure, is suitable for grades IV to VIII.

Test *c*, Grammar for use in grades VII and VIII.

Test *d*, Literature information, is suitable for grades VII and VIII, and tests literature information of authors and their writings.

These tests can be purchased from the Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.

2. The Charters Diagnostic Language Tests are very extensively used. They are suited to grades III to VIII.

Pronouns, forms 1 and 2.

Verbs, forms 1 and 2.

These may be secured from the Public School Publishing Company.

3. Hudelson Typical Composition Ability Scale can be used above the fourth grade. It is secured from the Public School Publishing Company.

4. Trabue Nassau County Supplement to the Hillegas Scale is suitable above the fourth grade. It may be obtained from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

5. Seaton-Pressey Minimum Essentials Tests in English Composition.

Test *a*, Capitalization.

Test *b*, Good usage.

Test *c*, Pronunciation.

Test *d*, Sentence structure.

Tests *a* and *b* are both printed on one sheet, and tests *c* and *d* are both printed on another sheet.

- These tests are suitable for grades III to VI. They can be secured from the Public School Publishing Company.
6. The Starch Punctuation Scale, Form A, consists of several sentences for each of ten steps. The pupils must supply the needed punctuation. These tests are quite reliable. They may be secured from the author, Daniel Starch, 1374 Massachusetts Avenue, Cambridge.
 7. Ayres Spelling Scale for Measuring Ability in Spelling is extensively used in grades II to VIII, with norms carefully worked out for each of these grades. They may be secured from the Department of Publications, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East Twenty-second Street, New York City.
 8. Buckingham Extension of the Ayres Spelling Scale is also a valuable scale. It can be secured from the Public School Publishing Company.
 9. Morrison-McCall Spelling Scale is based upon the Ayres Scale, the Buckingham Extension, and the Thorndike Word Book. These lists are arranged from the easy to the difficult words, and are suitable for grades II to VIII. They may be purchased from the World Book Company.
 10. Stanford Achievement Tests, primary and advanced, contain reliable tests in language and in literature. The World Book Company publishes this material.

Written and oral expression constitutes one of our most valuable subjects. If taught properly it may also be one of our most interesting subjects, touching the pupils' lives in a very vital manner. Correct usage is essential, but the ideas which the pupils have and their desire to express these thoughts are equally if not more important. We must arouse genuine desires for correct, elegant expressions, and this purpose in our instruction can best be secured by observing caution as to possible over-emphasis upon correct diction, at the expense of ideas and a desire for expression.

Suggestive Problems

1. How may we avoid the exploitation of pupils for entertainment purposes?
2. Make a list of suitable activities for developing the pupils' vocabularies.
3. Arrange a plan for socializing an oral English lesson.
4. Your class is preparing some written English. List some of the helpful functions which you can perform at that time.
5. Outline a plan for developing the pupils' ability to correct their own written material.

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- The Milwaukee State Normal Training School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, publishes interesting material on creative English:
1. *Creative Activities in the First Grade*, 1926.
 2. *Creative Activities in the Second Grade*, 1926 (Building a theatre).
 3. *Creative Activities in the Eighth Grade* (A Christmas Play).

Magazines

1. *Theatre Arts Monthly*, 99 Regent Street, W. I., London.
2. *Theatre and School*, Chico, California High School, Official Organ of the Drama Teachers Association and Oral Arts Association.
3. *The Elementary English Review*, 4070 Vicksburg Avenue, Detroit, Michigan.

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CHAPTER VIII

THE TEACHING OF SILENT READING

Preview Questions

1. In what respects has the teaching of reading improved during the last few years?
2. What are the important steps in primary reading?
3. What are the basic principles of teaching phonetics?
4. How would we plan beginning lessons for a class of pupils who do not speak English readily?
5. How would you proceed to have your class memorize a poem?

Improvements in Teaching Silent Reading.—Our aims, scope, and teaching technique have improved recently in the teaching of silent reading. Several elements have contributed to this improvement. In the first place, we have a very comprehensive and definite set of objectives which are our goals in this instruction. These objectives in silent reading are as follows:

1. Rich and varied experiences through reading. The development of pupils is influenced by the nature and the use of their experiences, hence silent reading is a large contributing factor to these experiences.

2. Strong motives for and permanent interest in reading. Experiences which we all have through our reading so influence our lives and the use which we make of our leisure that we hope to arouse permanent interests in wholesome reading, with our pupils. The severe test which we apply to all subject matter is gen-

uine interest of a wholesome and permanent nature. This is especially true in silent reading, as it touches character development so closely and is likely to be more completely realized than in many other school subjects.

3. Desirable attitudes and economical and effective habits and skills. These are classified into the following divisions:

(1) Development of well-established fundamental reading habits.

(2) Effective habits of intelligent interpretation.

(3) Ability to use books, libraries, and other sources of information economically and effectively.¹

Another evidence of improvement in our technique is the attempt to divide the pupil's progress in reading into definite stages of growth. This has been well outlined by Mr. King in the following manner:

1. Kindergarten and early first grade—period of preparation for reading.

2. First grade—the initial period of reading instruction.

3. Grades two and three—period of rapid progress in fundamental habits, attitudes and skills.

4. Grades four, five, and six—the period of wide reading to extend and enrich experience, to establish the fundamental habits and skills, and to cultivate important attitudes and tastes.

5. Grades seven, eight, and nine—period of refinement of specific reading skills, habits, attitudes, and tastes.

We now use a scientific basis for much of our plans and practices. This scientific attitude is shown by the

¹ Adapted from Gist and King, *The Teaching and Supervision of Reading*, Chap. II. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1927.

increase in scientific studies. In 1884 one such study was made. In the next 26 years 34 studies were made, while in the next 14 years, bringing it down to 1924, 401 studies were investigated scientifically. We are somewhat scientific-minded as to methodology, and these studies influence our procedures considerably.

Another factor which has influenced our practices is the rapid increase in the number of persons who read extensively and in the number of books, newspapers, and periodicals published. In 1880 we had about 20,000,000 issues of newspapers and magazines, or one to every two and a half persons, while in 1910 we had 100,000,000 issues, or about one to every person. Cheaper printing and reasonable transportation rates, as well as an increase in our interest in the affairs of the world, have caused much of this increase in reading. We now have large public and private libraries in every section of the country. This influences our instructional methods of how and what to read.

The somewhat complete separation of oral and silent reading practices is another outstanding element in our improvement of procedures. This was discussed in the previous chapter. Still another influencing factor is our aim to base much of methods and selection of material upon the pupil's interests and experiences. This is a capitalization of a most valuable asset in teaching.

Division of Silent Reading.—Silent reading for instructional purposes is divided into two classifications, the Recreatory or reading for pleasure, and the Work Type or reading for information. It is true that these overlap to some extent. We may read for information, and it may at the same time be a pleasure to us because of our interest. The Recreatory, however, applies to liter-

ary selections and the Work Type to factual material. A difference of material and a difference of teaching technique are valuable in developing attitudes and abilities in these two fields of silent reading. In this chapter the work type reading in the primary grades will be discussed with exercises illustrating procedures, but this phase of reading in the upper grades, where ability in comprehending factual material is an important phase of the instruction, will be discussed in later chapters. We shall also discuss in this chapter literary appreciation in all grades. With such a division of aims and instructional practices, it will be apropos to discuss estimating the pupils' ratings upon the report cards and upon the permanent school records. If we accept the above classification of reading instruction, we may well consider the several items in grading pupils. In the primary grades we should consider the pupil's ability in the mechanics of reading, oral reading, silent reading ability, and his interest in wholesome reading, in estimating his mark in reading. In more advanced grades we may well classify these four items differently. The pupil's mark in reading may well include three items—mechanics of reading, oral reading and literary appreciation, while his ability to comprehend factual material may well be included in his mark in these other fields, where ability to read this material understandingly is an important aim in instruction.

Primary Reading.—The teaching of reading in many modern schools is divided into three definite stages, the pre-primer stage, the book-reading period, and the independent recognition of words or the phonetic period. In some schools the initial book reading and phonetics are taught simultaneously.

Pre-primer Stage.—During this period many very definite aims are in vogue to prepare the pupils for actual book reading. This period begins in the kindergarten and continues until the pupils are ready for reading. Some of the bright pupils are able to begin some easy type of blackboard chart reading during their kindergarten experience; others take more time. Where the pupils have not had the advantage of the kindergarten, most teachers begin this pre-primer stage in the first grade and continue it until the pupils are ready to begin their reading. With most of these pupils, this stage in the first grade occupies about six weeks' time.

The pre-primer aims and techniques are varied. We try to arouse an interest in stories and in books, by story telling. When the pupils are ready for the reproduction of these stories we attempt to develop correct speech habits, enlarge their vocabulary, and assist them in the organization of these stories, so that they have a series of ideas, a sequence to these stories. This can be done both in the kindergarten and in the early first grade. The next step is the reading of stories or a series of sentences based upon their actual experiences. Some of these experiences hinge around their pets, their home, their baby brother or sister, or some experience in the classroom or on the way to school. A typical lesson may be with a kitten which some child brought to school. By a series of skillful questions the teacher will secure several statements or ideas from the pupils regarding this kitten.

"What is this?"

"What color is it?"

"How large is it?"

"Whose kitten is it?"

"It is a kitten."

"It is a white kitten."

"It is a small kitten."

"It is Mary's kitten."

In each case the teacher may ask the pupils if they would like to see what the statement looks like on the blackboard. Then the actual reading begins, a sentence at a time. This is generally followed by some pupil reading all of the sentences. The teacher often accompanies this reading with some word drills: asking them to find the word "kitten" as many times as they can, or to find it in three places.

Many teachers have a number of pictures scattered about the room. These pictures will frequently have the printed name below, as, baby, mother, daddy, dog, cat. Later the names may be removed and the pupils are asked to match the pictures with the names. Most of these words are used in the beginning reading lessons, so that a real reading vocabulary is being rapidly built up.

Script vs. Print.—There is somewhat of a controversy as to which should be used with the first lessons. Some advocate print because it is used in the primers to which the pupils will soon be directed. Others advocate script because some teachers are poor printers, and because no one can print exactly like the printed page. Still others advocate that both be taught simultaneously. It would seem that the printed form first would be better, provided the teacher develops the ability to do this well. The author's experience seems to indicate less confusion in the pupils' minds when print is used first. It may, however, not be a vital point, so long as the teacher studies the pupils, to avoid confusion.

Book Reading Stage.—The actual book reading is generally begun when the pupils are able to do considerable blackboard and chart reading. The skillful

teacher often plans the pre-primer reading in such a manner that the vocabulary of the first primer used is quite well developed with the pupils before the primer is given to them. The pre-primer type of reading is then continued for a number of weeks along with the book reading, one type coming in the morning and the other type coming in the afternoon.

Phonetics.—When phonetics was first introduced into the schools, it generally preceded all reading, with the vocabulary being built up phonetically before any reading was done. This developed considerable power among many pupils to recognize words, hence their reading in some respects progressed quite rapidly. However, the reading lessons which used only the phonetic vocabulary built up during this phonetic period were often very stereotyped and they lacked the interesting factors so common in our present plan. We now either teach phonetics after the initial reading has been begun or simultaneously with it. Experimentation is now going on to determine the need of teaching phonetics at all. Many of us do not believe that it is necessary, but we feel that with many pupils it is desirable and helpful. It seems to develop with many pupils the power to recognize words independently and to help them in spelling. We should not be too enthusiastic regarding phonetics, however. Observations seem to indicate quite conclusively that some pupils are so slow mentally that they cannot analyze phonetic sounds and can learn to read more easily by a combination of the word, picture, and sentence methods. We also find some accelerated pupils who do not seem to need phonetics to read and to progress rapidly in reading. It is doubtful as to how some of them get new words. Possibly they do this by the content.

Phonetics, if taught at all, should be done systematically and intelligently. The first element is the selection of the best method or a good method. We have two in common use. One is with keys or families, such as at, an, am, en, on, etc., the initial consonant being placed before the key to form the word. Later these keys are recognized in larger words. Another method is with such keys as ra, ta, ca, etc., which constitute the beginning of many words. Some experiments seem to indicate greater ease with the latter method than with the former, though the findings do not seem to be conclusive. In either case it is best to stay upon one method, to avoid confusion. It seems best to develop this sound sense when the pupils are ready for it. To do this, most teachers call the attention of the pupils to familiar sounds or families, in many of their known words, such as an, ar, am, etc. In this manner they build up phonetic families, rather than superimpose these keys upon the pupils. This requires much skill and a definite plan as to the keys to be developed, yet it secures very satisfactory results. We, therefore, start with easy, familiar sounds which are familiar in their reading. We rarely go beyond this reading vocabulary solely for the purpose of developing this ability, as phonetics is a means to independent reading, not an end in itself. Phonetics should be taught during a separate period of the day, and not during a reading recitation when the main aim is interesting reading. At one time we advocated no telling of any word, insisting upon all pupils working out their own words for themselves. Later we advocated another extreme, no stopping whatsoever, tell the pupil the word quickly and have him go on. Now we are on a sensible middle ground, with in-

terest as our major aim, and the development of power a supplementary aim which is concurrent with it.

Silent Reading in Primary Grades.—Pupils in the primary grades can be trained in silent reading early in their school course, often in the first grade. As soon as they begin to read silently more rapidly than orally, definite exercises may be given them. These exercises should be so planned that certain abilities in silent reading are intelligently developed. The ability to comprehend in silent reading must be broken up into definite abilities with exercises for the development of each ability. One important ability is the use of books. This training can be begun in the first grade when the pupils have primers with a table of contents. Such suggestions as these have been found to be valuable:

Find all the stories about animals.

Find how many stories about dogs.

Find where a certain story may be found.

This exercise may be followed by others which will tend to develop the ability to answer certain questions from the content. This work is a beginning to the skimming exercise which is quite general in more advanced grades and with adults when they read considerable material rather rapidly to find some particular point. Such questions in the first grade might be: "How many dogs are mentioned in this story?" "What were the colors of the dogs?" "Which dog is the largest?"

Still another ability is that of picking out the most essential points. With young pupils this ability can be developed by a number of exercises. The "yes and no," the "completion," and the "multiple choice" are valuable in this respect. Another ability, the training of

which can be started in the first grade, is that of discriminating judgment. We realize at the present time that pupils have reasoning ability and do a large amount of reasoning when very young. Such questions as, "Which dog would you prefer as a pet?" "Which boy would be the best friend?" are illustrative of helpful exercises. The practice of having the pupils reproduce somewhat verbatim what they have read has very doubtful value in developing any ability except memory and a somewhat superficial reading of selections. Far better to ask the pupils some discriminating judgment questions upon the content, which trains power to think at the same time that other abilities in silent reading are being developed.

Material for Silent Reading.—Teachers can develop important abilities by thoughtfully planned exercises. A very simple yet effective exercise is the typing of some story like the *Gingerbread Boy*, in a series of sentences:

The gingerbread boy ran away.
 He ran away from the cat.
 He ran away from the pig.
 He ran away from the dog.
 He ran away from the hen.
 But he cannot run away from the fox.

These sentences can be typed in large letters, on the special primer-type typewriter,¹ and pasted upon the pages of a booklet, a sentence to a page. The pupils can make such a booklet out of ordinary wrapping

¹ Most standard typewriters can be secured in "primer type" form. This furnishes valuable, almost essential equipment for these exercises, as the smaller-sized type on the standard typewriters may produce eye-strain in pupils of the first and second grades. The price is about the same as that of any standard typewriting machine.

paper, if the paper has been cut for them. Such paper, 8" x 18", when folded makes a booklet of convenient size, each page being 8" x 9". When the pupils have made such a booklet and have pasted the sentences upon the pages, they are then ready to illustrate each sentence upon the various pages. This illustrating may be done with crayolas or by paper cutting. It is a good exercise in silent reading for the first grade, as each pupil must secure the thought from the sentence by reading it before he can illustrate it correctly. We also correlate our silent reading with our art or our construction work.

Another valuable exercise is the original story work in the first grade. Each pupil can tell such a story or personal experience to the teacher, who writes it down in longhand. All these stories and experiences are then mimeographed from stencils cut on one of these "primer type" machines. All pupils receive copies of this material, each child's name appearing with his production. The pupils can then make a booklet, which serves as another valuable exercise in silent reading, with the human interest being predominate. Second-grade teachers have used a similar plan with "stories" or problems with the number combinations. Each pupil gives an original problem to his teacher, who prepares it in mimeographed form for booklet material. Such booklets contribute silent reading and problem work in arithmetic. The human element is again prominent, as each pupil's name accompanies his contribution.

Other teachers have typed suggestions and pasted them upon cardboards. These are filed in boxes upon the "busy work" table for use when the pupils have run out of a job. One such cardboard is as follows:

Draw something you could see—

1. On a train.
2. Up in the air.
3. Coming to school.
4. On a ship.
5. Across the street.
6. Right now.
7. In the woods.
8. During a rain.

On another such cardboard—

CUTTING AND PASTING

Fold your paper into four parts. Number the parts 1, 2, 3, 4.

1. Cut a hoe.
Paste it in Part 1.
2. Cut a watering can.
Paste it in Part 3.
3. Cut a spade.
Paste in on Part 4.
4. Cut a rake.
Paste in on Part 2.

A very simple exercise follows:

PICTURES TO DRAW

1. Draw two balls.
2. Color one black.
3. Color the other ball blue.

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Pupils enjoy the following exercises :

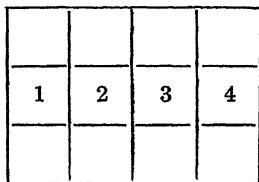
MAKING A SHOE-HOUSE

1. Cut out a big shoe.
2. Cut a window in the shoe.
3. Color the shoe black.
4. Cut out two little children.
5. Make the two children look out of the window.

A somewhat complicated exercise which advanced pupils enjoy as a real challenge in silent reading ability follows.

HOW TO MAKE A-B-C BLOCKS

1. Use a large sheet of paper that is square.
2. Fold your paper into 16 equal squares.
3. Cut off one row of squares.
4. Make 3 cuts on each side like this :



5. In square 1 print D.
6. In square 3 print d.
7. In square 2 draw an apple.
8. In square 4 draw a wheel.
9. Fold like a box and paste.

Another valuable type of silent reading exercise is the booklet material which is based upon the pupils'

pre-primer reading. Teachers frequently have interesting reading lessons upon the circus, the farm, the Pilgrims and the First Thanksgiving Day. These lessons are developed and placed upon the blackboard. Later they are mimeographed and put in booklets by the pupils. In some cases the pupils are permitted to take these booklets home when they are able to read them independently. This regulation is a challenge to them. In some of these booklets the pupils illustrate each page of typed material. This provides a valuable silent reading exercise for both the first and second grades.

Prepared Material.—It is often best for the teacher and the pupils to prepare their own material, as it is cheaper and can be suitable to the need. However, we have valuable prepared material for silent reading which can be used to splendid advantage. A list of typical material follows:

1. *Thought Test Readers*, by F. J. Prout, Emeline Baumeister and Helen Renner, published by The University Publishing Company, Lincoln, Chicago, New York, Dallas. These are books for the first, second and third grades, which have accompanying material to check the pupils upon their comprehension. These checks in most cases furnish interesting exercises for the pupils.

2. *Standard Test Lessons in Reading*, by William A. McCall and Lelah Mae Crabbs, may be secured from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. This material was prepared with such care and thoroughness that definite scores accompany it. Pamphlets with interesting stories and informational material are given to the pupils.

Each story is followed by a series of multiple choice exercises upon the content. At the bottom of each page is a place for the pupil to indicate his score. This series is for all of the elementary grades.

3. *My Test Book Record for My Teacher and Me* is the name of a series of pamphlets for pupils in the primary grades. This material is prepared by Alma Bassett of Hamtramch (Michigan) Public Schools. These exercises are arranged to accompany the *Story Hour Readers*. They are valuable in developing certain abilities in silent reading.

4. *The Red Men Series Handwork Book* is prepared and published by Margaret E. Watt of the San Francisco Public Schools. This material contains interesting stories and facts about the Indians. They are followed by interesting exercises for the pupils to perform. Some of these exercises suggest illustrations for the pupils to make, also exercises on Indian terminology, Yes and No problems, and an Indian song called "Indian Paint Brush."

5. *My Progress Book in Reading* is the name of another interesting and valuable series prepared by Eleanor M. Johnson and published by Looseleaf Education, Inc., 1123 Broadway, New York City, and 40 S. Third Street, Columbus, Ohio.

6. *Diagnostic Tests* are prepared by Emma Miller Bolenius and published by Houghton Mifflin Company, with offices in all large cities. This material is also valuable, as the exercises have been carefully worked out to accompany the *Bolenius Readers*. Definite abilities are intelligently considered in all of the exercises.

7. *Work That Is Play* is another series of work books in silent reading for pupils in the early primary

grades. This material is prepared by Laura M. Eyestorre and Clare W. Roberts. Ginn and Company, with offices in all large cities, publish it. This series contains interesting construction exercises which develop abilities in silent reading.

8. *Work and Play with Words* is another type of material in which the pupils perform construction exercises based upon accurate silent reading. It is prepared in attractive form with bright-colored pictures on the cover. Hall and McCreary Company, Chicago, publish this material.

9. This same company publishes *Stories I Like, with Pictures by Me*. It is prepared by Maud C. Stubbings and Genevieve M. Watts. The stories are "Little Black Sambo," "Peter Rabbitt," "The Bremen Band," "The Boy and His Goat," "The Tar Baby," and "The Three Billy Goats."

10. *Silent Reading Seat Work Pads* for use with *The Elson Readers* are prepared by Maude M. Collins and Laura E. Anderson. They are published by Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago, Atlanta, and New York. This series contains exercises to illustrate parts of the content, together with completion and multiple choice problems.

11. *Practice Material for the New Winston Readers* is prepared by Eloise Strading, and is published by The John C. Winston Company, with offices in all large cities. This material includes illustrations and multiple choice exercises upon the thought.

12. *Individual and Diagnostic Silent Reading Seat-work Tests* are prepared by Eleanor M. Johnson and published by Lyons and Carnahan, Chicago and New York. This material accompanies *The Child-Story*

Readers, and contains illustrations and Yes and No exercises.

13. *Work Books to Accompany Work-play Series*, by Arthur I. Gates and Miriam Blanton Huber, Macmillan, 1930.

Recreatory Reading.—Our pleasures and our deep-seated tastes and desires are a good index to our real character. What we do for pleasure during our leisure time indicates our tastes and desires. Furthermore, what we do for pleasure influences the development of character along certain lines. Therefore, our enjoyment in reading is an index to our attitudes and tastes, and it also influences character development. Reading has such a powerful influence in child training that the cultivation of a real love for wholesome reading constitutes one of the most important elements in all child-training problems.

John Martin has well expressed this thought in the following manner :

The mental vocabulary of a child is a vocabulary of sense, emotion, and imaginative experience. Do we impose upon his vocabulary that of the vulgar, slipshod, and carelessly selected book influence?

The wrong books impress the following negative qualities of the child's mind :

NEGATIVE

Common tastes, lack of reverence, unrefined comprehensions, dishonest standards, disorderly mental operations, over-stimulation, lack of continuity, uninformed and unstablized ideals.

In contrast, the right books impress the following finer qualities of spirit, mind, and character expression :

CONSTRUCTIVE—POSITIVE

- A (1) Moral tone and standards.
 - (2) Reverence.
 - (3) High sense of honor.
 - (4) Chivalry.
 - (5) Cultural mental background.
- B (1) Higher and finer ambitions.
 - (2) Mental stability.
 - (3) Broad basic judgments.
 - (4) Fine standards of human and life relationships.
 - (5) Normal patriotism.
- C (1) Wholesome imagination and sympathies.
 - (2) Refined appreciations.
 - (3) Instinctive good taste.
 - (4) Intelligent patience.
 - (5) Clean sense of humor.

We should avoid the endless groups of series books, which may and should be called "narcotic" reading. In themselves they are not all bad in tone or intentionally so in effect, but the child's books should be as different in character as the individuals whom he meets in life, and we should be as careful in guiding our children to the selection of the right book friends as we are in their selection of playmates and daily comrades.¹

How to Develop Wholesome Tastes in Reading.—Possibly the most essential element in developing a taste for good reading among the pupils is the attitude and equipment of the teacher herself. She must gain the confidence of the pupils to the extent that she can be considered a friend, a guide, a counsellor, in the interesting adventure with books. This relationship has been discussed elsewhere, but it is as essential in recreatory reading as in school aim. This confidence

¹ *John Martin's Book*, now *Children's Magazine*, January, 1924.

cannot be secured and maintained by condemning a pupil bitterly for improper or trashy reading. We shall find many pupils whose tastes are not on as high a level as desirable. We must find their interests and their educational influence in the home as a basis for guidance. We must take such pupils step by step, patiently and intelligently, from where we find them to the place we want them to be, in reading tastes.

Aside from the relationship and confidence which you as a teacher establish with the pupils, is your equipment to guide them properly into right channels of reading. You will be helped in this problem if you, yourself, enjoy good literature in your own reading. This love for good reading should reach the enthusiastic stage, where the pupils catch the spirit of wholesome enjoyment. Next will be a knowledge of and a love for children's books. The former may be somewhat difficult for the new teacher, but all can easily attain the latter requirement. We may well establish in our minds and with the pupils the elements which constitute good books. This should not be superimposed upon the pupils, but it should be developed with them as the problem evolves. It would be fine to develop with the pupils such elements as wholesome humor, elegant English expressions, vivid word pictures, and a wholesome interest which creates a desire to read the book. Pupils can be trained to evaluate their own books with a carefully evolved criterion for judgment.

Helpful Lists.—A knowledge of good reading for children will increase with teachers as they work with pupils, read their books, and study their reactions to their reading. However, even experienced teachers find help in carefully prepared lists such as the following:

1. *Children's Reading*, by Terman and Lima, D. Appleton & Company, Revised Edition. This book has been carefully prepared, with investigations financed by the Commonwealth Fund. Part One contains a valuable discussion of children's interests in reading, touching such items as the development of interests, individual differences, such as sex and mental differences, the desirable and the undesirable books. Part Two contains an extensive annotated reading list for the pupils, with the following helpful classification:

- (1) Books for young children.
- (2) Poetry, art, music, drama.
- (3) History, biography, and travel.
- (4) Nature.
- (5) Science and industry.
- (6) Supplementary reading by grades.

Each book on the list has guides as to the age at which it is most enjoyed, together with the best edition, publisher, and price. The index contains an author's list and a title list. The annotations of each book are valuable.

3. *Realms of Gold* has been prepared by Bertha E. Mahony and Elinor Whitney of the Bookshop for Boys and Girls in Boston. These women have a wonderful opportunity to evaluate children's literature, and this volume, published by Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc., Garden City, New York, is one of the most valuable for teachers and for children's librarians. The chapter titles are suggestive of its content:

- (1) Five Centuries of Children's Books.
- (2) Books for the Nursery (1-4 years).
- (3) Books for Children (4-8 years).
- (4) Books for Boys and Girls (from 8 years).

- (a) Creation of Fancy—Modern Fairy Tales.
- (b) Miracles of Nature.
- (c) Man's Adventurous Mind.
- (d) Wit, Wisdom and Talent.
- (e) Roads to the Past.
- (f) Beyond the Gates to Hercules.
- (g) Modern Times.
- (h) Home and School Pleasures and Pastimes.
- (i) The Making of Personality.
- (j) The Great Gates of the Mountain.

The last section (j) contains an excellent list of children's reference books. Each book mentioned has its publisher and price indicated, and the index is comprehensive. Annotations and illustrations are helpful in making selections.

3. *What Children Like to Read*, by Washburne and Vogel, published by Rand McNally in 1926, is valuable because of an extended study with the likes and dislikes of some 37,000 boys and girls, 800 teachers in over 30 cities co-operating in the study. This list is also arranged by ages, with publishers and prices given. The annotations are written by children.

4. *A Handbook of Children's Literature*, by Gardner and Ramsey, and published by Scott, Foresman in 1927, is also a valuable guide for teachers. This book has many of the features of the others mentioned above, but it also has some other unique features, such as "Creative Return from Children," "Dramatic Play and Creative Return," "Historical Summary," and "Keys to Stories and to Poems."

5. *A Guide to Literature for Children*, by Field, and published by Ginn in 1928, has a helpful list, with publishers and prices. It also discusses the influence of books, the public library, and the school library.

6. *The Children's Poets*, by Barnes, published by the World Book Company in 1924, is helpful to the teacher in arousing an interest in poetry. The poems are classified by poets, with an interesting sketch regarding each poet.

7. *This Singing World*, by Louis Untermeyer, and published by Harcourt, Brace in 1926, has a classified list of delightful poems for children.

8. The American Library Association in Chicago prepares helpful lists.

9. Catalogues giving classified, illustrated lists of books are also very helpful to the teacher. *The Book Shelf for Boys and Girls* is one of the most valuable. It is prepared by Clara W. Hunt, Superintendent of the Children's Department of the Brooklyn Public Library, and can be secured from R. R. Bowker Co., 62 West 45th Street, New York City. This catalogue is profusely illustrated, with the names of the publishers and the prices, together with short descriptive annotations. These catalogues can be purchased in quantities, with the name of the school printed upon the outside. They can then be distributed to parents or presented to pupils upon the completion of a certain amount of reading.

Classroom Procedures.—Everything possible should be done in the classroom to develop a taste for good reading. The atmosphere of the classroom could well be conducive to reading good books. Many teachers, especially in the primary grades, have "library corners" in which they keep a table and chairs, with interesting books for the pupils. The pupils themselves often contribute books of their own for this table. Teachers frequently have thirty to forty books for cir-

ulation purposes, with a pupil acting as loan librarian. Pupils may well be encouraged to read at any time when other work is finished. This requires some supervision by the teacher, to prevent neglect of other important tasks by some pupils who are anxious to read continually.

Book club meetings stimulate an interest in wholesome reading. Some teachers hold the meetings of this club after school, with full attendance. Possibly it is of sufficient importance, being so closely related to school problems, to justify school time. These clubs may have "book parties," with familiar characters attending in costume.

The teacher and well-prepared pupils may occasionally read to groups of pupils or to the entire class, interesting parts of a book, to stimulate an interest in a worth-while book. The teacher, however, should be cautious regarding too extended readings. The pupils should be stimulated, but should not be made dependent upon some one else for an entire book. It is doubtful if an entire book should ever be read to a class. Teachers also find it profitable to take one reading period each week for this type of recreatory reading, when circulating books are issued, and when time is taken to talk over books with the pupils. Extended written and oral book reports are of doubtful value except possibly to provide an opportunity for English expression. Long oral reviews may become tiresome and take away the desire to read the book. A few leading questions by the teacher or the pupils may provide sufficient checking upon the thoughtful reading of a book.

Records.—Many teachers find it helpful to keep records of books read, one means being the large wall

chart posted in a conspicuous place in the classroom. Many of these charts have the names of the pupils down the left side, and types of books across the top. It is best to stimulate the pupils to read many kinds of books, and this type of chart records vividly what each pupil is reading. Some teachers have reading lists for the pupils to consult. These lists when in annotated form are valuable. Extra credit plans are often stimulating when a variety of books is provided for in the credit plan. It should be largely upon a volunteer basis, however, if possible.

Technique with Reading Texts.—Intelligent skill should be exercised in the use of texts in reading. With silent reading, the aim should be largely to direct the pupils to the literary values and to develop genuine appreciation of good literature. This eliminates dissecting masterpieces, a procedure which may leave the pupils with a disgust for and a lack of interest in splendid selections. Sometimes it is advisable to cultivate an advanced interest by well-planned questions or suggestions to observe in reading the material. Illustrative of this principle are the suggestions and exercises in *Good Reading*.¹ On page 142 and following is an excellently written article on Burbank and his work. The title first appeals to the pupil, "The Man Who Made New Plants." Before reading the selection the pupil is confronted with these words:

As you read notice:

1. The interesting facts about Mr. Burbank's life.
2. The wonderful things he has done with plants.
3. His difficulties and success.

¹ *Good Reading, Fifth Reader*. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1928.

Such an introduction not only tends to arouse advanced interest, but it makes use of another basic principle, a motive for reading—something definite to find. Checks upon comprehension are valuable if skillfully arranged. This type of exercise which pupils enjoy, which serves as a self-test, should be planned. The following Completion Test from the same selection illustrates this type admirably:

COMPLETION TEST

1. From earliest childhood Luther Burbank loved..... and.....
2. As a boy he spent his spare time in and
3. His first success was in growing
4. When twenty-five years of age he moved to and bought a small
5. His first big success was in raising twenty thousand in months.
6. He grafted buds on trees.
7. During his last thirty years he created many new kinds of and
8. He made walnut-trees grow times as much in fourteen years as other trees across the street had grown in years; and his trees had better and
9. Ordinarily a chestnut-tree is from to years old before it begins to bear nuts.
10. Mr. Burbank raised chestnut-trees which had nuts at the end of a and a; he even raised some that bore nuts in
11. The state flower of California is the
12. The pomato is a new kind of fruit made from the plant and the plant together.
13. Mr. Burbank developed the fruit of the cactus so it can be eaten by; and it makes excellent food for feeding and

14. The great work he was doing was brought to the attention of at; they gave him a year for years to pay for the cost of his work.

In this same book we find a selection about dogs, entitled, "Some Dogs Almost Human." Among other stimulating helps the pupils are asked, "Is the title suitable? Why?"

Lessons in silent interpretative reading should inspire the pupils to further reading along the same lines. Text-book lessons should cite further material of interest to the pupils. In *Good Reading* we find short lists of children's books following many of the selections. Science may interest pupils intensely, if presented to them properly in reading material. In this field it is possible to animate the pupils toward analytic thinking and intelligent observation.

Scientific Testing.—While much of a pupil's reactions to literature can scarcely be measured, as it means evaluating his tastes and attitudes, we can test definitely and scientifically various abilities in comprehending factual material.

Following is a list of valuable tests used by the author in testing pupils:

1. *Gates Silent Reading Tests* are useful and reliable. The primary is in Types 1, 2, and 3. Type 1 tests recognition of words; Type 2, words, phrases and sentences, and Type 3 tests ability to read paragraphs for directions. These primary tests are suitable in the first three grades. They can be obtained from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

For grades 3 to 8 there are four valuable tests.

Type A tests ability to appreciate the general significance of paragraphs; Type B tests the ability to predict the outcome of events; Type C tests ability to understand precise directions, and Type D tests ability to note details. These can be secured from the same source as the primary tests outlined above.

2. *Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale* (grades 2 to 12). These tests can be obtained from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

3. *New Stanford Achievement Tests in Reading* (grades 2 to 9). These tests evaluate two abilities in silent reading, paragraph and word meaning. They are published by the World Book Company, Yonkers, New York.

4. *Courtis Silent Reading Tests* (grades 2 to 6). S. A. Courtis, Detroit Public Schools, publishes these tests.

5. *Haggerty Reading Examination*. (Sigma 1 for grades 1 to 3; Sigma 3 for grades 6 to 12.) This material can be secured from The World Book Company, Yonkers, New York.

Tests of this kind will guide us in determining the nature of the pupil's deficiency, in our grouping of pupils and in our remedial procedures. There are several items which we should know about pupils who seem to be weak in reading. We should know the mental capacity, which can be ascertained quite accurately by the use of intelligence tests or by some achievement tests which indicate the mental or achievement age. We should also know the degree and nature of interest which such pupils have in reading. It will help us also to know something about his home and outside environ-

ment. Does he have a language handicap? What are his reading "exposures" in the home?

Thus we see that reading vitally touches the present and future life of the child. The child's reading affects his school success and the correct use of his leisure in adult life. The responsibility of the school is to contribute to both.

Suggestive Problems

1. Prepare a blackboard reading lesson for the first grade based upon the pupils' experience as you would develop it with a class.
2. Willie Jones is in the third grade, over age, and cannot read well from the primer, although he has normal intelligence. What would you do to improve his reading?
3. Make a list of helpful classroom procedures which you might use in arousing an interest in wholesome reading among your pupils.
4. Outline a plan for developing a genuine appreciation for wholesome reading in an eighth grade class.
5. Make a list of interesting social activities which may form the basis for beginning lessons in reading.
6. You have a seventh grade class. Explain how you would proceed to place into four groups according to their reading interests and abilities.
7. Outline a plan for instructing these four groups in reading for a semester.
8. An eighth grade teacher insisted upon definite reactions from her pupils as to their emotional responses to fine literary selections. Evaluate this practice.

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CHAPTER IX

THE TEACHING OF ORAL READING

Preview Questions

1. What are some of the chief distinctions between oral and silent reading?
2. What are the values of oral reading?
3. What are the distinctions between audience and non-audience oral reading?
4. What is your part in securing good oral reading?

Development of Teaching Practices.—In the teaching of reading we have passed through several periods of progress. At one time our method was largely oral, each pupil taking his turn in reading material which all pupils had before them in their books. It scarcely could be called good oral reading, nor could it be said that one pupil read *to* the others, as they, if interested, could get the thought by silent reading, and not by listening to the pupil reading. When the fallacy of this practice became apparent, many schools went to the other extreme, and taught chiefly silent reading, neglecting entirely, in some cases, good oral reading. At the present time we seem to be observing a more balanced programme in teaching both phases of reading with a more adequate division of time.

Distinction Between Oral and Silent Reading.—Observations and experimentations seem to indicate quite a distinction between these two phases of reading. This

distinction is often apparent with many pupils during the latter part of the first grade, when the ability to read develops to the point that they are able to read more rapidly silently than orally. Modern methods of teaching reading reduce the number of lip readers and increase the eye span so that silent and oral reading are distinctly different. In silent reading the eye span is greater and the pausation periods less than in oral reading. Silent reading is largely an individual matter in which the child merely gets the thought of the content read. In oral reading the eye span is shorter, and hence the rapidity is less, as the pupil reading is not only getting the thought but he is also transmitting this thought to others by means of the human voice. Silent reading is an individual matter in which the pupil uses certain abilities in securing the thought. Oral reading is a socialized undertaking in which skill in speech habits is necessary.

Value of Oral Reading.—Oral reading has several distinct values which are so vital that it should be carefully and skillfully taught in the schools. In the first place, oral reading is valuable in developing the correct speech habits. The human voice has such possibilities and is often used so improperly that a definite technique should be used in the school to assure its proper functioning. It is not a matter of not being able to talk, of not being able to communicate with others, but a matter of being able to use the voice in a clear, effective and pleasing manner. The demands of modern society are such that speech habits must be developed properly. The radio with its announcers who specialize in broadcasting may influence this tendency very appreciably.

A pleasing voice is so essential that every means possible should be used to develop correct speech habits. One of the most effective means is by a good example which the teacher sets for the pupils. Teachers in training are now being checked upon their voices with suggested courses for those whose voices should be improved. Teachers and principals in service have become so interested in having good voices that many of them are taking extension and university courses in the speech arts. The teacher should check herself continually upon the voice which she uses in the classroom. Many teachers begin their teaching with good voices, but later have rasping, high pitched, disagreeable classroom voices. Sometimes this change is due to disturbances in the classroom which the teacher feels may be subdued by raising her voice. Often it is due to the earnestness of the teacher in wanting all pupils to understand her. The example which the teacher sets in this respect is illustrated by the following quotation:¹

"The teacher's voice may make just the difference between success and failure. There is the voice which irritates and provokes, and another which inspires quiet and instils respect. The harsh, loud voice wastes nervous energy and is often the cause of bad discipline. In the same way, exaggerated and artificial pronunciation is both exhausting and disturbing. The teacher's voice is as important as her grammar. Correctness and temperance are virtues of speech which apply to its quality as well as to its substance."

Teachers should observe carefully any speech defects which the pupils have. Some of these defects may be of such a nature that the teacher is able to correct them by proper drill. Serious cases, naturally, must be han-

¹ *Philippine Journal of Education.*

dled by speech experts. The defects which the teacher may overcome are varied. Indistinctness due to slurring certain syllables or letters in common words can be corrected by special attention. Often it is the "g" in the "ing" syllable. Sometimes it is the running together of short words, such as *aincha*, for *haven't you*; *so my*, for *so am I*; *getcher money*, for *get your money*; *gotchoors*, for *got yours*; *kmon*, for *come on*; *didn't cheerme*, for *didn't you hear me*; and *cantchew*, for *can't you*. Often it is the *r*, *h*, *c* sounds.

Indistinctness and slurring of this kind can be corrected by enunciation drills which in some cases exaggerate correct enunciation. Such drills may consist of prepared material from speech correction books, or of the material furnished by misusages in the classroom. Often the pupils enjoy making lists of poor enunciations for drill purposes. The following exercises are splendid for corrective purposes and can be used by any classroom teacher. It is an excellent plan to give such exercises ¹ to the entire class, many may not need them, but the special speech cases may feel less conscious when not singled out.

I. The Problems of Bodily Poise.

Wriggling, shifting from one foot to the other, grasping the edge of the desk, twisting the hands, pulling at clothing, etc., usually result from physical or mental tension.

EXERCISES FOR DEVELOPING POISE

A. Relaxation.

1. Stretch body upward, raising arms above head, stretching trunk well, then gently relax whole body—repeat

¹ Gist, Arthur S., and King, William A., *The Teaching and Supervision of Reading*, Chap. III. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1927.

two or three times—notice how much more comfortable a relaxed body is.

2. Spread shoulders—push out and down with elbows, chest coming well up—then relax entirely.

Note.—Always be sure that the relaxation continues longer than the stretching.

B. Constructive Criticism.—Make criticism constructive, *e.g.*, “Relax your arms and hands” rather than “Do not pull at your belt.”

C. Reciting before a mirror, where the child can see the movements of his own body, is helpful in securing body poise. The stereopticon lantern also may be utilized to advantage. Throw the pupil’s image on the screen, thus enabling him to observe his own bodily motions.

II. Enunciation.

In speech, the volume of voice should be in the vowel sound, with a light contact of speech organs on consonant sounds. Much mumbling, explosive speech, and sluggishness of speech is due to the violation of this principle.

CONSTRUCTIVE EXERCISES

A. Vowel drill: Prolong each vowel slightly—use relaxed jaw; teeth well apart, lips active—the upper lip should be sufficiently active to be free from teeth.

Exercise for open teeth: Relax jaw, open and close sixteen times.

For active lips:

1. Inhale: Give *aho, aho, aho, aho, aho* on the exhalation. Thrust lips well forward on “o.”
2. Project and relax lips to count: sixteen counts.

a. Drill:

ah	a	a
aw	e	e
oo	i	i
oi	o	o
ou	u	u

b. Word drill based on vowel groups, *e.g.*:

farm	bake	bat
ball	meet	met
moon	ice	ill
oil	bold	box
now	music	up

c. Phrases involving wide-open vowels, *e.g.*:

A tall boy.
 The round moon.
 My father's horse.
 An old oak-tree.
 In the next block.
 Up a narrow alley.

d. Have each pupil select one sentence from a History or Geography lesson, to be read with special reference to use of vowels.

III. A Pleasing Voice.

High-pitched, tense voices, gasping, and what appears to be fatigue in reading or speaking, are usually due to muscular tension, especially in the area of the diaphragm. Indefinite phrasing increases the tendency to gasping.

CONSTRUCTIVE EXERCISES

1. Relaxation.—Use the exercises suggested in *A*.
2. Pitch pipe.—Give the proper pitch—about “d” above middle “c.” Have pupil begin speaking at that pitch.
3. Give much practice in the matter of definite phrasing.

Note.—If a person is well relaxed, so that the action of the diaphragm is easy and natural, and is speaking in definite phrases, he will naturally inhale at the end of a phrase without gasping.

It is suggested that principals receive the services of a Speech Teacher if assistance is needed in interpreting these exercises or making them effective.

The teacher will then be helped much in developing

correct speech habits by the use of phonetics for drill purposes.

Lisping is a somewhat common speech defect which must be handled with much care, otherwise this defect may cause self-consciousness and stuttering. In such cases the teacher of speech correction is a valuable assistant to the classroom teacher. The expert may take the pupil for special lessons or she may guide the classroom teacher along effective lines. In either case the pupil must eventually take his place with his group in all oral work. The classroom teacher, then, has a definite responsibility to assume. This type of pupils must never be made to feel embarrassed and nervous before the group. As stated throughout this book, the teacher's chief duty is to develop, to bring out the pupils, and proper expression avenues will accomplish this. Oral reading before the teacher alone or before a small sympathetic group of pupils, with proper corrective exercises will generally overcome defects, and this accomplishment will develop the self-confidence necessary for the pupil to take his place in the larger group. The efficient teaching of oral reading is a most effective means of developing proper speech habits, as it is often easier to read a selection when thoroughly prepared than to make any extended oral recitation before a group.

As a second value in teaching oral reading, we have the development of right social qualities. The socialization of the pupil is an important aim of the modern school. As will be discussed later in this chapter, effective oral reading is social, as the pupil reads to an interested audience. Therefore, the adequate teaching of oral reading is a valuable socializing activity.

Another value of oral reading is that of developing

the auditory sense. Many pupils are visual-minded, and this is a valuable asset in the learning process. The auditory sense must also be developed. This can be accomplished by the effective use of the audience type of oral reading. Pupils can be trained to read to an audience. They can also be taught to listen thoughtfully and courteously. We can see this auditory sense being developed by the extensive use of the radio.

Still another value is the check which good oral reading is upon the comprehension of what is read. This value is somewhat open to question as we have other more adequate checks upon the comprehension, which will be discussed in later chapters. However, in the first and second grades checking the comprehension by means of oral reading is of considerable value. In more advanced grades we often find pupils who are fluent oral readers who are unable to think very deeply upon involved content. Conversely, we often find pupils who are poor oral readers who have considerable ability to comprehend intelligently very difficult material.

Audience vs. Non-Audience Reading.—Audience reading may be said to be that phase of oral reading in which there is an interested audience securing the thought only by listening. It is doubtful if this type of oral reading can be secured adequately by the audience having the material before them to follow while the reading is being done. The non-audience type is that in which the pupil may have two means of securing the thought, by listening and by following the material at hand. The oral reading may be so poorly done that the pupils have but one means of securing the thought, that of following with the selection in their hands. This type is entirely eliminated by some who see no value in

it whatsoever. Others use it occasionally as an aid to the poor oral reader whose chief difficulty is with words. The value of the non-audience type is so doubtful and the value of the audience phase is so apparent, that the teacher would do well to employ the latter type much of the time in oral reading. Stone,¹ in an extensive investigation, found that the non-audience type was being used almost exclusively. Most teachers should recognize the value of the audience type of oral reading, and use it far more than the non-audience type.

Securing Audience Situations.—An audience situation is just what the term implies. It is reading to an audience which is listening and getting the thought only by listening. This type of oral reading places emphasis upon getting the thought over to those who are the audience. The reader, feeling responsible for this task, is more likely to prepare his material and to give it in such a manner that the audience will get the message of the selection.

Possibly the most effective way of securing a genuine audience situation is to have new and fresh material for the pupils to read to one another. This is an ideal situation which we may well attain. School and public libraries will often solve this problem for us by providing us with a wealth of material for this purpose. Books which the pupils bring from home, often their own personal property, will at times supply this need. Many pupils take pride in reading from their own books. Juvenile magazines frequently have excellent material for oral reading. Newspapers have valuable factual ma-

¹ Stone, C. R., "Oral Reading in the Elementary School and Its Supervision," *Third Year Book*, Department of Elementary School Principals, N. E. A., 1201 16th Street, Northwest, Washington, D. C.

terial in every issue, which may be used in the classroom. Controversial questions which have come up in connection with social or natural sciences may sometimes be settled by consulting the text and reference material and then reading it to one another. This constitutes a real audience situation.

When varied material cannot be secured, many teachers have found it advantageous to have the pupils listen with the books closed while one pupil reads. "Losing the place" should not be considered as serious a fault as it once was.

Advanced Interest.—Many teachers have found it a valuable plan to have pupils tell enough about a selection to arouse some advanced interest before the material is read. Possibly the most thrilling part or the climax of a narrative may be read after the interest has been secured. Telling an eighth grade group something of the story of Ben Hur, followed by reading parts of the chariot race, may produce a real, genuine audience situation.

The skillful handling of the socialized recitation assists us in securing a splendid audience situation. On one occasion the author observed this well managed by a fifth grade teacher. A boy read to his classmates. This was followed by some very intelligent questions and comments by the pupils and by the teacher. "John read the best today of any time." "How could he improve still more?" "By articulating better." "How could he articulate better?" (by the teacher). "By opening his mouth more and using his lips more" (by a pupil). This is possible only when the various elements constituting effective oral reading have been carefully developed with the class to the point that they

are conscious of these essentials and try to improve them.

A fourth grade teacher on several occasions placed upon the blackboard questions upon the content of what was to be read orally by the pupils to one another, the material read being new to the pupils who made the audience. These pupils listening had pencils and paper for memorandum purposes. When they heard material read which would answer one of these questions, a note of this fact was made. This forced careful reading and attentive listening.

A reading club is also a valuable means of securing this audience situation. Some teachers have officers, with the club meeting once or twice a week. The main object of the club is to cultivate an interest in wholesome reading, with good audience reading being one of the effective devices used.

Preparations.—Sight reading as a test of oral ability is used by many teachers, but this is considered of doubtful value by the author, especially with pupils whose ability along these lines is somewhat weak. Most adults would want an opportunity to look over material before reading to a group. We can seldom secure a good audience situation unless the reading is fairly well done. This requires preparation by many pupils, especially by the poor readers. Adequate preparation, therefore, is an important element. As in other subjects, the pupils who are weak need special attention. It is very doubtful as to the possibility of a very poor oral reader ever becoming proficient by merely taking his turn each day. He needs considerable preparation for each reading. In the middle and upper grades this type of pupil is more likely to become a good oral reader by thor-

ough preparation to read to his group once a week. Here, again, interest and pride in good performance must be aroused before results of a high type can be secured. This pupil must be interested in his selection and in wishing to share this pleasure with other pupils. Parents may have to be educated as to the value of this procedure. On some occasions parents have felt that their children were being neglected unless they read every day. These parents as well as the teacher can assist the pupil in preparing his oral reading.

No extended amount of the audience reading recitation time should be devoted to preparing the pupils on the mechanics of good oral reading, especially with very poor readers. The interest of the audience may lag, and then its value may be entirely lost. If many pupils need assistance the directed-study type of recitation should be used for preparation purposes. Pairing the pupils, a good reader with a poor reader, often prepares this poor reader sufficiently for the audience reading. Long, extended reading by any one pupil should be avoided for several reasons. This pupil may become tired, his voice may grow monotonous to the audience, and these other pupils may not receive the practice which they need.

Dramatics.—The intelligent use of dramatics is valuable in audience reading. There are several steps which the teachers should observe with selections in dramatics which have been prepared for the pupils. In the first place, the pupils must become familiar with the content of the selection. This requires a silent reading lesson. Another step is the discussion of the thought, the actors and the necessary material for dramatizing the selection. The assignment of parts is another step, and

the pupils after the thoughtful reading and discussion are generally able to make their own assignments somewhat under the guidance of the teacher. The next step then is the thorough preparation of each part. Poor oral reading should always be avoided if possible, especially in dramatics, where the value is realized in effective audience reading. The teacher should proceed slowly and thoughtfully in dramatics. A limited number of exercises in dramatics, which are well done, will develop more power than a large number of poorly read selections.

Interest, pride, and a wholesome amount of self-confidence mean considerable in developing power in oral reading. This can generally be secured by making it an important aim in every classroom. Good audience reading in school assemblies is a valuable exercise. When an adequate assembly is not possible, grouping two classes together is another valuable technique. When several classes are intensely interested in good oral reading, the author has found it profitable to send pupils in groups or individually to other classrooms to read interesting and well-prepared selections.

Contests.—When intelligently administered contests are planned, we have still another valuable classroom device for developing interest and power in oral reading. The author has found it best rarely to have such contests in which the best individual reader is selected. In such contests the same pupils are generally selected as being the best readers. This eliminates the majority who need such stimulus most. Group contests have been the best. In such contests one group competes against another and the composite rating is taken. Boys may compete against the girls or one row of pupils against

another row. In this way all pupils, even the poorest, have an opportunity to prepare for a real contest. When a poor reader is present in such a group, the proficient readers will often volunteer to assist this poor reader in his preparation, the group not wishing to have its composite rating lowered. Parents will also render valuable assistance in the selection and preparation of the material to be read. The pupils make their own selections. This requires judgment as to the best type to select for oral reading.

In such contests teachers have guided the pupils in selecting the best elements to judge. Following is such a list selected by one group of pupils under the intelligent guidance of a competent teacher :

1. Posture.
2. Enunciation.
3. Voice.
4. Attitude toward selection.
5. Interest in audience.
6. Interest of class.
7. Appropriateness of selection.
8. Preparation.
9. Poise.
10. Ability to get the message over.

In this rather comprehensive list we see many valuable elements, some of which are not always selected in similar contests. Interest in the selection shows the reader's enthusiasm for the content of his selection. Interest in the audience is often selected, but caution should be taken that it is natural and not mechanical. Asking a pupil "to look up" is of very doubtful value. When it cannot be done naturally it is ridiculous, in

some cases the pupil losing the place. It requires thorough preparation to read without constantly looking at the material read. The interest of the class is also a valuable element as a check upon the effectiveness of the reading upon the audience. The appropriateness of the selection is also valuable, as some long, descriptive narratives may be difficult to read, and uninteresting to the class. On one occasion most of the eighth grade boys in such a contest selected poetry. When questioned as to their selections they gave two reasons. They liked poetry and felt that it would make good oral reading.

Proportion of Time to Spend Upon Oral and Silent Reading.—These two phases of reading are distinct, yet they overlap considerably in actual practice. We may use both phases in some lessons, yet generally it is best to plan each lesson with the two types distinct. The relative amount of time used upon each phase will naturally depend upon the grade and upon the need of the class. However, extended observations seem to indicate the following schedule as fitting the need of many classes:

First grade, all oral reading at first, gradually increasing the amount of time upon silent reading until about ten per cent of the total reading time is devoted to silent reading by the end of the year's work.

Second grade, oral reading seventy per cent and silent reading thirty per cent.

Third grade, oral reading fifty per cent and silent reading the same.

Fourth grade, forty per cent upon oral reading and sixty per cent upon silent reading.

Fifth and sixth grades, about thirty per cent upon oral reading and seventy per cent upon silent reading.

Seventh and eighth grades, forty per cent upon oral reading and sixty per cent upon silent reading.

As suggested above, this is but an approximate division of time and at best can only serve as a guide to the teacher.

The Teacher's Part.—The teacher has a definite responsibility in arousing an interest in oral reading and in developing abilities in this field. She acts as a guide, a counsellor, a stimulator here, as in all phases of school instruction, the effect being augmented by the interest aroused. The teacher who is a good oral reader and reads occasionally to the pupils is able to arouse interest in various literary selections and at the same time she stimulates the pupils in oral reading. It is well for all teachers to be good oral readers. One superintendent in his interviews with applicants for positions to teach English in the high school often asked the applicant to read to him. He felt that ability along this line was valuable to the teacher of English. It is also valuable in the elementary field. The type of oral reading should be appropriate to the selection, yet it should be natural, without oratorical effects sometimes observed when pupils become so interested that private lessons are taken outside of school.

The teacher should feel that the oral reading recitation is as important as any other period of the day; that it demands her thought and attention to the extent that she cannot afford to spend the period in looking over test papers or in making out reports while the pupils call upon one another to read in turn. This recitation should receive the teacher's careful, intelligent preparation and guidance, the same as any other period.

Reading Material.—Good oral reading can best be secured by the use of reading material which is suitable for audience reading purposes. It must be of such a nature that it will interest most of the class listening. The style, also, has much to do with the selection's being suitable for oral reading. Long, descriptive material will often lose the attention of the class and will be somewhat difficult for some pupils to read in an interesting manner. Poetry, when the thought and the spirit of such selections are understood and appreciated by the reader, constitutes good oral reading material. In fact, poetry can be best appreciated by reading it aloud. Conversational material in which a change of voice and manner is necessary is also valuable for oral reading. With many upper grade boys and with a few girls, great orations make very appropriate selections for this purpose. Pupils reading such material need not assume a highly elocutionary attitude, yet they can use considerable force effectively. Dramatics, of course, constitute very appropriate oral reading material. The teacher would do well to classify all reading material under two divisions, that which is good for oral reading and that which is better suited for silent reading because of long descriptive sentences, involved English construction, and somewhat technical and obscure content. We should not attempt to read orally all selections in the upper grade readers. Some material is much better for silent reading purposes.

Over-Emphasis.—Oral reading, then, has real values which should occupy a considerable part of our time and thought. However, oral reading is a slower process than silent reading. It is a lip reading exercise, hence over-emphasis upon this phase of reading will produce

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lip readers who are slow, too slow, in silent reading. We should therefore so plan our work that both oral and silent reading receive their due share of training and attention, realizing that they are quite distinct in process and in teaching technique.

Suggestive Problems

1. Many of your pupils have high-pitched, disagreeable voices. What can you do to improve their voices?
2. You have a limited amount of reading material for oral reading. What can you do to secure a good quality of audience reading?
3. Make a list of criteria by which to evaluate material suitable for oral reading.
4. One of the chief causes of Willie Jones' poor oral reading is timidity. Suggest a list of activities which might overcome this condition.
5. How does the teaching of phonics assist pupils who do not speak English fluently?

Selected References

See reference list at close of preceding chapter.

CHAPTER X

THE TEACHING OF SOCIAL STUDIES

Preview Questions

1. Why do we give instruction in the Social Studies?
2. What do we mean by a unified course in Social Studies?
3. Name some of the basic principles of visual aids.
4. Make a list of our outstanding techniques in the use of visual aids.
5. What is meant by the problem method of instruction in the Social Studies?
6. Why give instruction in Current Events?

Aims.—It is quite necessary for us to keep in mind the essential aims in the teaching of the social studies before we can proceed intelligently into a discussion of these studies. These aims are:

1. To inculcate an observance of the rights of others which includes a deep-seated respect for law and order. It is necessary for us to know that we have law and order for the welfare of the majority.

2. To show the interrelation of man among all civilized countries.

3. To show the dependence of man upon the earth's conditions and resources.

4. To develop a desire to know community life and the responsibility of each in contributing toward the common good.

5. To learn the essential problems in business, industry, and in our social life.

6. To learn the past and its valuable contribution to the present.

7. To assist the students in making vocational choices later.

8. To train students in the efficient use of all books, libraries, and reference material.

Unified Course in the Teaching of Social Studies.—The phases of social studies or social science include history, all types of geography (economic, political, physical, and mathematical), civics, and current events. Obviously, these many phases cannot be adequately separated into definite units. There is so much overlapping that duplication and confusion naturally arise in our former attempts to teach distinct subjects. To understand clearly certain people, their industries, and social life, we must study their past, both cultural and industrial, their ideals, heritage, and aspirations, as well as their present problems. We must know their history and all their present-day institutional life. Naturally this requires a comprehensive study of all phases of the social studies.

One of the most difficult problems in such a unified course is the point of view and methodology of the teacher. Taught as many of us were in distinct subjects, it is hard for us to think in terms of a comprehensive whole. Good teaching requires a course of study outlined in problems with all phases of the social studies grouped around this problem. It requires a change in our thinking and planning. We no longer follow chronological arrangement except to solve our problems as a unified whole.

This problem of change in methodology leads us to the next phase of the question, namely getting ade-

quate material to teach this science in a unified manner. Experienced teachers with considerable intelligent planning may be able to plan their social studies instruction with material written in the form of history, geography, and civics. This requires considerable time and in most cases a capable group of pupils competent in the use of many types of reference material. This condition does not always exist and necessitates too much of the busy teacher's time. The inexperienced teacher as well as the experienced instructor would find such material difficult to use with inadequately trained pupils. Most of us must have provided for us carefully prepared material on the unified basis. This material is now being prepared. One example is the Rugg material.¹

Habits in Social Science.—As discussed in an earlier chapter it is necessary to develop the essential habits of study in every field of instruction. In the Social Studies these habits consist largely of silent reading within the field. We might begin this discussion by calling attention to the

Laws of Learning.—The Law of Readiness briefly is the supposed theory that to learn anything we must be in a mental state which makes us ready to learn that particular thing. The Law of Exercise is the supposed theory that the more we use or exercise the things we have learned, the longer we will remember them. The Law of Effect is the supposed theory that those things we like to do we remember best, while those things we dislike to do we remember least.

¹ Rugg, Harold; a series of text-books based upon experiments with the *Rugg Social Science Pamphlets*, published by Ginn & Company.

In applying the Law of Readiness, the teacher first takes inventory of the habits and information which her pupils possess. She then tries to determine the habits and information which are desirable to attain. She carefully works out an approach to a unit of the work. Let us say it is the problem, "Is transportation important?" She has so prepared this approach that the pupils themselves state the problem. They are eager to solve it. They feel an actual need of doing so. They are *ready* for it.

In applying the Law of Exercise the teacher by skillful reviewing brings material that has already been gone over before the class. A subject of Social Science may be the subject of an art lesson, or the topic for an article in the school magazine, or may remind one of a song which can be sung in the music period. All of these different approaches are really repetition of one kind or another and are likely to "clinch" the information in the child's mind.

In applying the Law of Effect, the teacher in presenting a problem or unit of work does so in a way that will give each child as much satisfaction as possible. Each child must be made to feel the importance of his contribution in solving the problem. If he does well, praise him. If he does poorly, encourage him. Never contrast his meagre work with the abundant work of a brighter pupil; rather say, "James, how much better you are doing this week than last."

All three of these laws definitely apply to silent reading habits. We must possess the necessary habits to read intelligently. We must know how to guide the pupils into such habits. We must prepare silent reading exercises which will tend to fix these habits as

skills. We can then strive for the satisfaction of reading understandingly and with enthusiastic pleasure. When we discuss study habits we must analyze the true meaning of study. It should mean thinking, analyzing, and reflecting upon every sentence and paragraph. It is not enough to know an author's point of view. We must go further and interpret our reading in terms of our own opinion and experiences. This helps us in our assimilation and digesting of all reading. Silent reading abilities must be carefully diagnosed that exercises may be prepared to develop these abilities.

Ability to Locate Material for Social Science.—Much of our reference material is useful only when we are able to locate it quickly and accurately. One of the simplest procedures in locating material is with tables of content in which we may assign to the class a problem in locating definite material. Such an exercise is simple enough for second grade pupils and may well be repeated with upper grade classes whenever a new book is taken. All pupils should study tables of content in much of the reference material. Second grade pupils could be asked to find all stories about animals listed in the table of contents. More advanced classes could well be directed to analyze the arrangement of material in social science books as outlined in the table of contents. In some books such material is carefully itemized in the table of contents under chapter headings. This is valuable and the pupils may well be trained until this practice becomes a fixed habit.

The index should also be studied until the pupils know how to use it and make a habit of it. Many classes in the elementary school need review exercises on alphabetical arrangements. Before running through

such alphabetical list, it is well to think first of key words which are likely to be used in the classification of content. The pupils might then think of the arrangement of the letters in the alphabet so that little time is lost in finding the material. Carefully prepared exercises on the use of the index will develop ability in its use in a very short time with most pupils. Some teachers find it valuable to direct the pupils in making an index when none exists. This exercise may be planned with compositions written by the classes.

The dictionary is the most used reference book and may be very helpful. The more scholarly a person, the more he is likely to use the dictionary. Definite exercises on the use of the dictionary might well be used with many of the classes in the elementary school. The nature of these exercises will depend upon the need of the pupils. Drill exercises upon the alphabet are often helpful. Pupils should first think where a certain letter comes in the alphabet and then try to open the dictionary as nearly as possible to this letter. The next exercise may well be with the guide words appearing at the top of each page. In many standardized dictionaries we find two columns with a guide word at the top of each. The first guide word is the first word on the page and the next guide word is for the last word on the page. In some dictionaries the second guide word is for the last word on the opposite page. In either case these "guide posts" should be used intelligently. No one should be looking through the context for a word when the word is not on that page.

Other uses of the dictionary include the selection and study of the most pertinent definition to suit the content of the material read. Meanings and definitions

isolated from content have little value. The use of the dictionary for pronunciations is also worthy definite exercises. Three steps may well be used in working out pronunciations independently. First is the syllabication, second the accent, and lastly the sound of letters. Familiar words with the letters marked will be found at the bottom of all pages in most standardized dictionaries. Parts of speech, spellings of irregular verbs, and gazetteers are other useful features of dictionaries. Lessons on these features are also necessary with many classes. Foreign words and phrases, tables of coinage, and weights and measures, abbreviations, and special vocabularies for flowers, gems, football, and aviation will also be found in many useful dictionaries. Pupils enjoy listing all the uses and features of their dictionaries.

The Library Files and Social Science.—The extensive use of a modern library depends very largely upon ability to find necessary material promptly. In the elementary school we may well begin definite exercises on the use of the library. With the pupils of the primary grades we can begin by teaching them the location of juvenile books. These pupils enjoy finding their own books in the stacks which are set aside for children's literature. In the upper grades the pupils should be taught how to use the card catalogue. The first lesson may well be the classification of books according to the Dewey System in standardized libraries. The location of these classifications on the stacks is another step. The pupils should also learn that material in these card catalogues are arranged by authors, books, and subject-matter titles. Standard reference material found in most libraries should also be used with ease and ac-

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curacy. Encyclopædias, the *World Almanacs*, Readers' Guide, and the Atlas constitute useful reference material with which definite lessons should be planned. Exercises¹ 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 are indicative of the type of lessons which may be given to pupils of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades.

EXERCISE 1

1. DEVELOPMENT OF ABILITY TO LOCATE MATERIAL IN VARIED SOURCES

d. How Books Are Catalogued in the Library

To the Student:

In order that you may find books readily in the library it is necessary that they be arranged systematically. There are several systems, but the one most commonly used is the Dewey Decimal System. The main divisions of this system are the following:

000 General works	537 Electricity
031 Encyclopædias	580 Botany
100 Philosophy	590 Zoology
170 Ethics	600 Useful Arts
200 Religion	608 Inventions
220 Bible	620 Engineering
290 Mythology	621.384 Radio
300 Sociology	640 Cooking and Sewing
320 Government	650 Business
331 Labor	657 Accountancy
370 Education	658 Business methods
395 Etiquette	658.8 Salesmanship
398 Folklore	700 Fine Arts
400 Language	720 Architecture
500 Science	730 Sculpture
520 Astronomy	750 Painting
530 Physics	780 Music

¹ Arranged with assistance of R. D. Lindquist, Director, Laboratory Schools, Ohio State University.

792 Theatre, Opera	821 English poetry
793 Games	822 English drama
796 Athletics	824 English essays
800 Literature	825 English oratory
808.5 Debating	900 History
Public speaking	910 Geography and travel
810 American literature	917 Travel—North America
811 American poetry	920 Biography
812 American drama	970 North America
814 American essays	973 U. S. History
815 American oratory	
820 English literature	

Directions:

Write after each of the following titles the number which designates the division in which it is located.

1. The Charm of Fine Manners
2. A Beginner's Star-Book
3. Plant Names; where they come from
4. Boys' Own Book of Great Inventions
5. Home Economics in the Elementary
 and Secondary Schools
6. Short History of Architecture
7. Studies in Modern Music
8. Training for Sports
9. Modern Times and the Living Past
10. Heroes Every Child Should Know

EXERCISE 2

1. DEVELOPMENT OF ABILITY TO LOCATE MATERIAL
IN VARIED SOURCES

*e. Arranging Titles According to Catalogue**To the Student:*

You will also find it helpful to be able to locate books by authors. This is done by means of a sub-classification (alpha-

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betical by authors) under each division. The following arrangement is found in some libraries :

811	811	811	811
E 17	L 86	L 92	W 24
Emerson	Longfellow	Lowell	Whittier

Directions:

Number the following as they would appear in a library catalogue: See library classification on attached sheet.

CATALOGUE

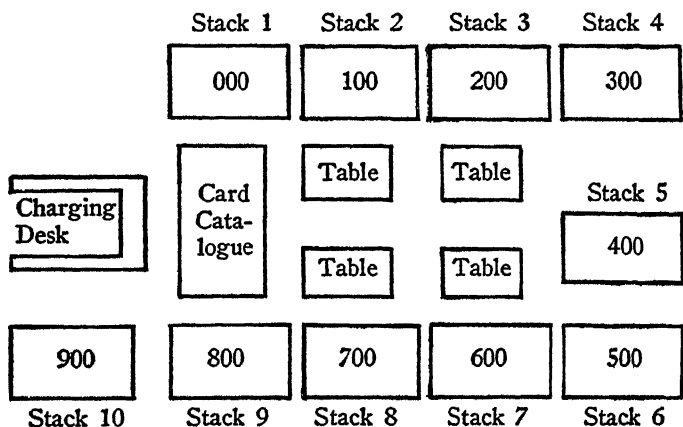
NUMBERS

- 1. *Dramatics for Home & Community*, Wise, C. M.
- 2. *Complete Book of Great Musicians*, Sholes, P. A.
- 3. *American Composers*, Hughes, Rupert.
- 4. *The Amateur Chemist*, Collins, A. F.
- 5. *The World of Sound*, Bragg, W. H.
- 6. *English Words and Their Background*, McKnight, G. H.
- 7. *Argumentation and Debate*, Ketcham, V. A.
- 8. *Science of Baseball*, Douglas, Byrd.
- 9. *Physics for Technical Students*, Anderson, W. B.
- 10. *The Human Side of Plants*, Dixon, Royal.
- 11. *Producing in Little Theatres*, Stratton, Clarence.
- 12. *Great Composers and Their Work*, Elson, L. C.
- 13. *Art of Make-Up*, Chalmers, Helen.
- 14. *Sequoia Sonnets*, Keeler, Charles.
- 15. *Track and Field*, Jones, T. E.
- 16. *Both Sides of 100 Public Questions*, Shurter, E. D., & Taylor, C. C.
- 17. *Romance of Words*, Weekley, Ernest.
- 18. *Pros and Cons*, Askew, T. B.
- 19. *Scene Painting*, Atkinson, F.
- 20. *Farm Rhymes*, Riley, J. W.
- 21. *Spanish Prose Composition*, Umphrey, G. W.
- 22. *Book of Sports and Games*, Camp, W. C.

EXERCISE 3

1. DEVELOPMENT OF ABILITY TO LOCATE MATERIAL
IN VARIED SOURCES*e. Finding Books in the Library**To the Student:*

The diagram below shows the arrangement in one high school library.

*Directions:*

Indicate by writing in the stack number in which stack you would find each of the following books:

STACK
NUMBER

- | | |
|---|-------|
| 1. <i>The Black Arrow</i> | 823 |
| 2. <i>Young People's Story of Music</i> | 780 |
| 3. <i>Young Americans in the British Isles</i> | 914.2 |
| 4. <i>Letters of a Radio Engineer to His Son</i> | 654.2 |
| 5. <i>Dawn of Civilization</i> | 932 |

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.... 6. <i>California: A Romantic Story for Young People</i>	979.4
.... 7. <i>Boy with the U. S. Diplomats</i>	327
.... 8. <i>Boy with the U. S. Foresters</i>	582
.... 9. <i>Story of Mankind</i>	909
....10. <i>Adventures in Reading</i>	028
....11. <i>One-Act Plays for Young Folks</i>	793
....12. <i>Poems of Youth</i>	821.08
....13. <i>The Works of Alfred Tennyson</i>	821
....14. <i>History of Arithmetic</i>	510.9
....15. <i>The World Book</i>	030
....16. <i>Practical Handbook of Games</i>	790
....17. <i>How to Judge a Picture</i>	750
....18. <i>More Than Conquerors</i>	920
....19. <i>American Hero Stories</i>	920
....20. <i>Christopher Columbus</i>	723
....21. <i>Old, Old Story-Book</i>	221
....22. <i>Our Living Language</i>	420
....23. <i>Book of Musical Knowledge</i>	780
....24. <i>Myths of Greece and Rome</i>	292
....25. <i>Ethics for Children</i>	170

EXERCISE 4

1. DEVELOPMENT OF ABILITY TO LOCATE MATERIAL IN VARIED SOURCES

e. The World Almanac

To the Student:

The *World Almanac*, published yearly by the *New York World-Telegram*, contains a collection of statistical information concerning present-day affairs. It has information on topics such as the following:

Index	Record of the Year
The World in 1930	In the Business World
Ruler, Popes, Famous Men	Memorable Dates and
The United States, Descriptive	Disasters
Calendar for 1931	Tariff Act of 1930
	Table of Distances

Weights and Measures	U. S. Census Population, 1930
Sporting Records for 1930	Trade and Commerce
Political Information	Colleges and Universities
Aviation Feats of 1930	Foreign Countries
Labor Review for 1930	

Directions:

Indicate by writing Yes or No after each of the following topics whether you would find information regarding the topic in the *World Almanac*:

1. Who is the ruler of Roumania?
2. Who holds the world's record for the 100-yard dash?
.....
3. The population of California?
4. How far is it from San Francisco to Honolulu?
5. The length of a meter in inches
6. Candidates for president in the last election
7. The transcontinental flight of Captain Hawkes
8. The names of the colleges in Ohio
9. The exports to Great Britain last year
10. The biography of Longfellow
11. How to make a radio

EXERCISE 5

1. DEVELOPMENT OF ABILITY TO LOCATE MATERIAL IN
VARIED SOURCES*f. Review on Sources of Information**To the Student:*

Following is a list of reference sources found in most libraries:

- | | |
|----------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Dictionary | 4. Readers' Guide |
| 2. Library Catalogue | 5. <i>World Almanac</i> |
| 3. Encyclopedia | 6. Atlas |

Directions:

Indicate by placing one of the above numbers after each of

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the following topics the source in which you would most readily find information:

TOPIC	SOURCE
1. Party issues in the last political campaign.
2. The names of the Congressmen from your state.
3. The meaning of vox populi vox deus.
4. A list of books on Radio.
5. The Discovery of Radium.
6. How is the past tense of "omit" spelled?
7. How many books on Aeronautics have we in our library?
8. A brief biography of George Washington.
9. A magazine article on some current topic.
10. Which state produced the most wheat last year?

Ability to Comprehend Quickly.—Various exercises can be given to develop the ability to comprehend quickly what is read. The skimming exercise is valuable in developing the ability to find definite information. This is motivated reading which constitutes the major purpose in all reading for information. While the pupil may occasionally read informational material to secure a general scope of what is read, generally he should read for definite information. Having a definite question or problem in mind to analyze is the most valuable way of reading for information, especially when the content may be somewhat involved and the pupil is reading in a new field. Mr. Washburne has experimented with this principle.¹ He took a historical ac-

¹ Washburne, John W., "Questions in Social Science," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, May, 1929.

count of 3,000 words describing the story of Florence, which was unfamiliar to the pupils. He printed this story in five forms which he presented to 1,456 pupils in grades 8 to 11. The pupils were divided into five groups, each group reading but one form. These forms were printed as follows :

1. With no questions.
2. With questions only at the beginning of the story.
3. With questions interspersed at the beginning of appropriate paragraphs.
4. With questions grouped at the end of the story.

Mr. Washburne found that the group having questions recalled best the important elements in the story and that the best placement was at the beginning of the story.

Speed exercises in which the pupils have limited time and are looking for answers to definite questions are valuable. To read rapidly in silent reading we should attempt to eliminate the lip reading. The new-type exercises as given in the chapter on Silent Reading are a help in developing this ability.

The recalling of essential points is a necessary ability to develop. Exercises in outlining are valuable when carefully planned and given somewhat under guidance. The memorizing of these essential items will assist the pupil in recalling the important points in the entire selection. Experiments seem to indicate that the best way to memorize is to work upon the entire outline rather than to break it up into parts. An essential element in outlining is organizing the important points in the context. This is an essential ability for adults and

it is applicable to conversations and lectures as well as to informational reading.

The illustrating of the essential elements in stories or in informational material constitutes another helpful exercise in which the majority of the pupils are intensely interested. These illustrations may be individual or group in character. Possibly the teacher should use both types. The group or community illustration may occupy an entire length of a wall in the classroom, either on the blackboard or upon wrapping paper pinned to the wall. Some teachers have found that the pupils are much interested in illustrating the western movement, taking the content from their histories or pleasure readers. In one of the author's schools the sixth grade pupils prepared slides upon various topics in connection with their social studies. At one time they took transportation on land and water. Each pupil prepared a slide showing some step in the development of transportation from barbaric times to the present. The pupils sought material in their texts as well as in the libraries which could well be illustrated for this purpose. These slides were shown to the class by means of the stereopticon lantern. The pupil who made the slide explained it and this constituted a motivated oral language exercise. Silent reading habits, therefore, form an essential aim of instruction in the social studies.

The Problem Method.—The problem method in the social studies constitutes a valuable means of analyzing various elements in this field. This method is akin to our every-day life in which we are constantly confronted with problems. One of the problems of the Exploration Period in American History was to find a

northwest passage through North America to Asia. Finding data upon this problem motivates the reading to such an extent that the pupils may well use the habits in silent reading in analyzing all of the difficulties which confronted these early, hardy explorers. The problem approach to this question brings out several basic principles:

1. To think intelligently and analytically as they read the subject matter.

2. To locate relevant material quickly and accurately in their texts and reference material.

3. To evaluate this material in terms of the problem.

4. To organize their thinking and their material.

5. To express their thoughts in clear, correct English to the class.

6. To listen attentively, discriminatingly, and courteously to other members of the class presenting their material.

The problem may be selected by the teacher or, better still, by the class under careful guidance. These problems should be stated clearly in the positive form and thoroughly understood before the collection of data is begun. Pupils may well be taught to take a few notes to quote sources while reading. Friendly yet spirited arguments may take place during the recitation period so the pupil may be required to quote the source of his data. Extended written work upon the problem should be avoided. The recitation can well be one of several types discussed in the chapter upon Recitations. The directed-study type is often necessary when the pupils are unfamiliar with the problem method or are weak in some of the various phases of silent reading. The socialized form of recitation must be used

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when the data is collected and fully organized for class discussion. Following is a list of some usable problems which illustrate certain types:

1. Columbus had several traits of character which helped him to accomplish his purpose.

2. The government's policy of reclaiming land is beneficial.

3. Several colonies showed a democratic spirit in organizing their governments.

4. The Panama Canal has benefited commerce.

5. Mining is a chief industry in Mexico.

6. Controlling the Mississippi River is a difficult task.

7. The Forty-niners encountered many difficulties in reaching California.

8. The Jesuits endured many hardships.

9. Daniel Boone did much to open the wilderness to settlers.

10. California has many kinds of climate.

The problem method is a valuable aid in the social studies but the teacher must use it intelligently. The problem must be carefully selected, the data collected under guidance, and the class discussion handled skillfully. Digressions should be avoided that valuable time is not wasted. Summaries of essential points must also constitute an important part of the problem-solving method. Training in silent reading, organization, and oral discussion are essential, yet important facts should be emphasized and fixed in the pupil's mind.

Visual Aids.—Many school subjects can well use some visual aids to further the major objectives. The intelligent use of such aids is based upon several fundamental principles:

1. Appeal to the eye. Many pupils are eye-minded, which necessitates using this avenue of approach to the mental processes.

2. Visual information arouses interest in the printed page.

3. Vivid details are accurately reproduced which assist in forming correct mental images.

4. Increases powers of observation.

5. An aid to silent reading, as it tends to enrich the pupils' experiences and stimulate further reading.

6. An outlet for art expression.

7. Enriches and supplements the curricular with all their various teaching procedures.

8. Economizes time in accomplishing educational objectives.

These principles mean much to us in our instruction of the social studies when visual aids are used with skill. A definite technique must be developed.

1. One of the most essential techniques in the use of visual material is that of having it supplement definite curricular content. Such material should be definitely connected with our courses and our objectives. We must thoroughly understand that visual aids are not entertaining devices and should not be used for that purpose.

2. In the second place we should be familiar with all classified material which has been so carefully prepared for classroom use. Chapter references will indicate the most valuable.

3. Teachers will do well to accumulate visual material, with the pupils assisting. Mounted pictures, road maps, and nature specimens of all kinds may be collected by the teacher and the pupils working and planning together.

4. A very limited amount of material should be used during one class period. An unlimited amount of specimens or an extensive number of pictures cannot be used advantageously even with thorough preparation by the teacher and the pupils. Explanations and discussions are necessary to bring out essential elements and to fix these points in mind. Many teachers have found that eight pictures is the maximum limit which can be used skillfully during any one class period. The use of a more extended number often degenerates the lesson into a mere entertaining exercise. We all reach the saturation period very soon when we no longer observe details carefully. As tourists we are quite alert for a few days, then we soon reach a condition where we fail to be interested in details. This is especially true with pupils in studying visual material carefully.

5. Pupils should study visual aids thoroughly as preparatory for class discussion. The members of the class may well take the lead in the explanation of visual material. This requires considerable advanced preparation, often under guidance. Pupils develop power far more by carefully guided effort than by passively listening to the teacher.

Visual instruction, therefore, is based upon sound psychological principles and has a carefully prepared technique for its use.

Current Events.—The use of current events material in the classroom is an important technique in the social studies as indicated in the list of objectives at the beginning of this chapter. We must plan to arouse in the pupils a deep-seated interest in our present-day, major social problems. It is not so much a matter of teaching current events as it is of arousing an intelligent interest

and a respectful attitude toward our important social problems and developing the ability to analyze them. The pupils' analysis may be somewhat childish at times, but under careful guidance this power may be developed quite rapidly. We should avoid at all times attempting to control a pupil's conclusions. No independent power of critical thinking would thus be developed. Their conclusions are of less importance than their interests, their attitudes, and their abilities.

The means of arousing such interests and attitudes are of prime importance. It is one thing to have a clear-cut purpose, while it is entirely a different matter to have planned a definite technique for realizing this purpose. There seem to be two plans for handling the current events in the classroom. One plan is to have a special place upon the programme, possibly once a week, when often a current event publication is read and discussed by the teachers and pupils. This plan, while comparatively easy to administer, has very doubtful results. The reading and discussion of topics covering a wide range of interests and geographic and historic settings may not produce the attitudes and power we aim to develop. A far better scheme, yet more difficult in planning and in administering, is that of tying up all current topics with our curricular content. This requires foresight and intelligent outlining. The assignment of work to pupils whereby they seek current topics upon a definite phase of the social studies course is likely to secure satisfactory results. The canvassing of the newspapers, periodicals, and juvenile current events papers for definite information is a worth-while assignment. The question and answer pages of current event magazines is a valuable section in which many pupils

could have important parts. The assigned topic method constitutes one plan which may be used to advantage by the teacher and pupils. Such assignments may be given to individual pupils or to groups or committees. This latter method has many distinct advantages in socializing the pupils, exchange of ideas, and planning the collection or presentation of current event data. These assignments may take the pupils upon interesting excursions, to interview prominent citizens, and to the library for statistics, facts, and relevant information.

Dramatizations are not only stimulating but illuminating to the pupils. Classes enjoy dramatizing the President's Cabinet, Congress, the State Legislature, a meeting of the City Council, the County Board of Supervisors, Board of Education, the Immigration Court, and many service public organizations such as a local meeting of the Audubon Society, and prominent men's and women's service clubs. Dramatizations bring in many school subjects and objectives in a vitalized manner.

The testing of current events may well be a part of this phase of the social studies. The pupils might be tested upon important present-day problems. What are some of the most vital questions, local, national, and international? What are some of the important points of view concerning these questions? Who are some of our most prominent people connected with these various problems? These are a few questions which might be used in modified form for testing purposes.

Work Books.—In the social studies as in other fields, work books for pupils' use are valuable. These Work Books direct the pupils' work, stimulate and organize their thinking and summarize considerable material for

testing purposes. This material varies in cost from 40 to 75 cents for each book. Following is a list of some which have been found to be useful and stimulating:

Directed History Study—Scheck & Orton—World Book Co.

Book One—*Progress of Civilization from the Old Stone Age to the Period of Exploration.*

Book Two—*Discovery to Constitution.*

Book Three—*Period Since the Revolution.*

Foote—*Civics of My Community*—World Book Company.

Book One—*Public Health—Protection to Life and Property.*

Book Two—*Education, Recreation, Civic Beauty, Community Planning.*

Book Three—*Transportation, Communication, Wealth.*

Book Four—*Principles, Laws, Elections, School Government.*

Foote—*Directed Civics Study*—World Book Company. Problem study—organized in units.

Morgan, DeWitt S.—*Case Studies for Classes in Civics.* Presents basic issues—provides method—excellent. Laidlaw Brothers, 133 1st Street, San Francisco.

Bishop and Robinson—*American History Work Book.*

Outlines—Maps—Tests—Pictures—Stories—tracing paper.

Part One—To 1829. 7th grade.

Part Two—Since 1829. 8th grade.

Ginn & Company.

Rice & Paden—*The Pupil's Workbook in the Geography of California*—Using the problem method. Ginn & Company.

Hughes, Harold F.—*California—A Pupil Activity Book.*

Very usable in ungraded schools. Ginn & Company.

Rugg and Mendenhall—*Pupils' Work Books to accompany the Rugg Social Science material.* Ginn & Company.

The testing of pupils upon various phases of the social studies is an important part of the instructional plans. A few of the standardized tests are as follows:

1. *Branom Tests in Geography* covering places, facts, and problems. This series of tests is published

in several forms in eight parts—United States, the World, and one for each continent. The exercises are of the true-false and multiple-choice type suitable mainly for the upper grades. They can be secured from McKnight and McKnight, Normal, Illinois.

2. *Brown-Woody Civics Test* deals with local, state, and national government with vocabulary, information, and thinking exercises. The World Book Company publishes this test.

3. *Buckingham-Stevenson Place Geography Tests* are valuable for grades 5 to 8 for the United States and the World. They are published in three forms by the Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois, and can be secured in a booklet form containing all three forms of both tests.

4. *Denver Curriculum Semester Tests in American History and Government* are suitable for the upper grades. Each test is arranged in sixty multiple-choice exercises, testing factual information and reasoning ability. They are suitable for the upper grades and may be secured from the Denver Public Schools, 414 Fourteenth Street, Denver, Colorado.

5. *The Gregory-Spencer Geography Tests* are prepared for the upper grades, containing trade routes and their products, miscellaneous geography, casual geography, place and descriptive geography, and political and place geography. They may be secured from the Bureau of Administrative Research, College of Education, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati.

6. *Gregory Tests in American History* are arranged in three tests with two forms for each test. Test one covers American History up to Washington's administration, with subsequent tests dealing with various

phases to the present time. These tests may also be secured from the University of Cincinnati.

Non-standardized Tests.—This type of tests has been discussed from a general standpoint in the chapter on Tests showing the values and limitations of such tests. Following are illustrative tests:¹

HISTORY QUIZ—7B

This exercise is used to test the pupils' memory of certain historical facts. The teachers read the statements to the pupils and they write the word "true," or "false."

TRUE OR FALSE

1. Dale's first great reform was to establish individual ownership of land and goods.
2. Self-government was established in Virginia in 1619.
3. The most notable provision of the Virginia charter was that the colonists as citizens in America should have the same rights and privileges as belong to citizens of England.
4. The first negro slaves were brought to Virginia in 1619.
5. Tobacco established village life in Virginia.
6. The Navigation Laws and the tyranny of Berkeley led to Bacon's Rebellion.
7. The Puritans wished to stay in the church and reform it.
8. The Pilgrims made their first settlement at Plymouth, Mass., in 1620.
9. The Pilgrims at Plymouth believed that the people should rule; they planted democracy in their church and state.
10. The Pilgrims received a very liberal charter from the king.
11. The Puritans allowed none but church members to vote.
12. The Connecticut Constitution was the first written Constitution in all history used to formulate a government.
13. Thomas Hooker, the minister at Cambridge, was the lead-

¹ Gist, Arthur S., *Elementary School Supervision*, Chapters VII and VIII. Scribners, 1926.

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er of a movement in favor of a more democratic form of government.

14. The Connecticut Charter was so liberal and satisfied the people so well that it afterward became the State constitution and remained in force till 1818.
15. Roger Williams was governor of the Massachusetts Bay Colony.
16. The first union of the colonies was the New England Confederacy in 1643.
17. Massachusetts lost her charter in 1684.
18. The Connecticut Charter was hidden in an oak tree.
19. The people of New England lived mostly in towns.
20. Andros was a good governor and liked by all the people.

U. S. HISTORY TEST—ANALOGIES—7B

- | | |
|---|---------------------------|
| 1. New York colony—Royal colony. | Pennsylvania colony |
| 2. New York—Settled by the Dutch. | Florida |
| 3. New England colonies. | Southern colonies. |
| fishing. | mining. |
| wheat raising. | fishing. |
| cotton growing. | wheat raising. |
| mining. | cotton growing. |
| shipbuilding. | shipbuilding. |
| tobacco growing. | tobacco growing. |
| 4. Pennsylvania—Quakers. | Maryland |
| 5. Henry Hudson—Discovered Hudson. | De Soto |
| 6. Raleigh—Aided by Queen Elizabeth of England. | Columbus |
| 7. Balboa—Spanish Explorer. | John Cabot |
| 8. 1732—Settlement of Georgia. | 1620 |
| 9. Pennsylvania — William Penn. | Rhode Island |
| 10. 1565—St. Augustine. | 1607 |
| 11. John Winthrop—Governor of Massachusetts colony. | John Smith |

U. S. HISTORY TEST—ANALOGIES—7A

1. Jefferson—Declaration of Independence.	Madison
2. Howe—Invented Sewing Machine.	McCormick
3. Northwest Territory—Michigan, Indiana, etc.	Oregon Territory
4. Supreme Court—interprets law.	Congress
5. Civil War—Battle of Gettysburg.	Revolution
6. Northwest Territory—Geo. Rogers Clark.	Oregon Territory
7. Samuel F. Smith—wrote America.	Francis Scott Key
8. Massachusetts—James Otis.	Virginia
9. Webster—Unionist.	Calhoun
10. Cause of Dorr's Rebellion—Property qualifications for voting.	Whiskey Rebellion
11. Field—Atlantic Cable.	Samuel F. B. Morse

U. S. HISTORY TEST—ANALOGIES—8B

1. War of 1812—Treaty of Ghent.	Spanish American
2. Grover Cleveland—Democrat.	Abraham Lincoln
3. Woodrow Wilson—served two terms.	U. S. Grant
4. George Washington—Virginia.	Warren Harding
5. War of 1812—Impressment of American seamen.	Spanish American
6. 1893—Columbia Exposition.	1904
7. 1907 - 1909—Atlantic fleet sailed around the world.	1519-1521
8. Manila—Dewey.	Santiago
9. De Witt Clinton—Erie Canal.	Ferdinand de Lesseps
10. Horace Greeley—New York Tribune.	Benjamin Franklin

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11. Harriet Beecher Stowe— Uncle Tom's Cabin.	Edward Everett Hale
12. Horace Mann—Public Schools.	Clara Barton
13. Commodore Perry—Lake Erie victory.	Admiral Dewey
14. George Washington—Fa- ther of his country.	John Stevens
15. Texas—acquired by annex- ation.	Florida

THE WESTWARD MOVEMENT

A TEST IN UNDERSTANDING

Put a cross (x) in front of the best answer to each question. Be able to give reasons for your selection.

1. What was the chief motive for people going West?
 - (a) Abundance of cheap or free fertile land in the East.
 - (b) Discovery of the precious metals in the West.
 - (c) Spirit of restlessness or adventure of the settlers.
 - (d) Economic and religious oppression in the eastern states.
2. What was the chief reason for the West being more democratic than the East?
 - (a) Because the western state constitutions were more democratic than the eastern.
 - (b) Because there was more economic equality in the West than elsewhere.
 - (c) Because almost all westerners were hunters, farmers, or raisers of live stock.
 - (d) Because the West contained more factories and mills than the East.
3. Why were the western canals generally unprofitable?
 - (a) They were too narrow and too shallow.
 - (b) They were miserably mismanaged and poorly constructed.
 - (c) The West ceased to grow and business expansion did not take place.
 - (d) The canals could not successfully compete with the incoming railroads.

4. Why did more foreigners settle in the Northwest than in the Southwest?
 - (a) The means of reaching the Northwest were easier and less expensive.
 - (b) They came from the same latitudes in Europe and consequently the acclimation would be less.
 - (c) The price of government land was lower in the Northwest.
 - (d) The economic opportunities were greater for free labor and small capital.
5. Why did New England oppose the purchase of Louisiana from France in 1803?
 - (a) Because they thought the land was not worth the price that was paid.
 - (b) Because they thought the French did not have a lawful claim to the region.
 - (c) Because they thought the Constitution did not give Congress the power to purchase territory.
 - (d) Because they thought their own political influence would be reduced by the rise of new states in the West.
6. Which section of the Union supported the War of 1812 the most?
 - (a) New England because her shipping had been ravaged and her profits diminished.
 - (b) The Southeast because the price of cotton fell due to the destruction of American shipping.
 - (c) The West because of the strong national spirit and the chance the war would give to gain Canada and Florida.
 - (d) The Middle Atlantic states because of the hatred of that section toward the English.
7. Why did the United States government change its plan in regard to the sale of western lands?
 - (a) With the rise of the political power of the West, that section was able to pass laws lowering the price of lands.
 - (b) The East was anxious to have large states arise in the West and a lower price of land would promote this desire.
 - (c) New sources of revenue arose in the national government and the need for money from land sales diminished.

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- (d) In order to reduce over-population in the East by the attraction of cheap land in the West.
8. Who chiefly promoted the construction of the canals connecting New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore with districts to the west?
- (a) The people of the West in order to have better transportation for their products.
 - (b) The national government in order to bind the nation more closely together.
 - (c) The terminal cities in the East in order to profit by the increased trade.
 - (d) The foreign shipping interests in order to have more produce to transport.
9. What were the chief characteristics of the people of the Northwest in 1830?
- (a) Irreligious, aristocratic, commercial, manufacturing, highly cultured, lazy, wealthy, pro-slavery.
 - (b) Religiously inclined, Protestants, democratic, agricultural, rather rough, industrious, fairly prosperous, against slavery.
 - (c) Catholic, highly educated, poor, bigoted, cultured, believers in a high protective tariff.
 - (d) Protestants, believers in a common school education, pro-slavery, commercial, believers in free trade.
10. What is the Conservation movement?
- (a) A movement to secure the wise use of our natural resources.
 - (b) A movement to reserve the natural resources for future generations.
 - (c) A movement to have the Federal government develop our remaining resources—a socialistic scheme.
 - (d) A movement to utilize our natural resources at as rapid a rate as possible.

INFORMAL TEST FOR 6A GEOGRAPHY

Underscore the *one* most important statement that applies to each city.

1. New York is noted for:
- (a) Its large stock yards.

- (b) Its immigration station.
- (c) Its facilities for commerce and transportation.
- 2. Chicago is noted for :
 - (a) Its manufacture of cotton.
 - (b) Its oil refineries.
 - (c) Its stock-yards and meat packing.
- 3. Philadelphia is famous for :
 - (a) Its iron mines.
 - (b) Its oil refineries.
 - (c) Its manufacture of iron.
- 4. New Orleans is noted for :
 - (a) Its oil fields.
 - (b) Shipping of silk.
 - (c) Its cotton market.
- 5. Detroit, Michigan, is noted for :
 - (a) Manufacture of automobiles.
 - (b) Manufacture of street cars.
 - (c) Manufacture of hardware.
- 6. Cleveland, Ohio, is noted for :
 - (a) Manufacture of shoes.
 - (b) Manufacture of bicycles.
 - (c) Manufacture of iron and steel goods.
- 7. San Francisco is noted for :
 - (a) Its output of gold.
 - (b) Its commerce.
 - (c) Its output of grain.
- 8. Los Angeles is noted for :
 - (a) Its fine harbor.
 - (b) Its moving-picture industry.
 - (c) Its mild climate.
- 9. Minneapolis is noted for :
 - (a) Corn growing.
 - (b) Raising of cattle.
 - (c) Manufacturing of flour.
- 10. Philadelphia is noted for :
 - (a) Its commerce.
 - (b) Its iron and steel manufacturing.
 - (c) Its good harbor.

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11. Denver is noted for :
 - (a) Its grain and forage crops.
 - (b) Its extensive irrigation systems.
 - (c) Its subtropical fruit industry.
12. Cleveland is noted for :
 - (a) An oil centre.
 - (b) A big manufacturing centre.
 - (c) A good harbor.
13. St. Louis is noted for :
 - (a) The greatest horse and mule market in the world.
 - (b) The manufacture of bridges and locomotives.
 - (c) Its rich iron mines.
14. Buffalo is noted for :
 - (a) Its manufacturing of iron and steel.
 - (b) Its fine harbor.
 - (c) Its manufacturing centre.
15. New Orleans is noted for :
 - (a) Its production of rice.
 - (b) Its southern gateway to and from the most productive valley in the world.
 - (c) An important fruit-raising centre.
16. Mobile is noted for :
 - (a) Its export trade in cotton.
 - (b) Its petroleum wells.
 - (c) Its sugar refineries.
17. Birmingham is noted for :
 - (a) Its cotton and tobacco mills.
 - (b) An iron manufacturing city.
 - (c) Its meat-packing plants.
18. Butte is noted for :
 - (a) Its leather manufacturing.
 - (b) Its mineral output.
 - (c) Its fine harbor.
19. Duluth is noted for :
 - (a) Its iron manufacturing.
 - (b) The mining of iron.
 - (c) Its oil fields.

20. Portland, Oregon, is noted for:
 - (a) Its lumber industry.
 - (b) Its automobile manufacturing.
 - (c) Its cotton shipping port.
21. Louisville is noted for:
 - (a) Its river port.
 - (b) Its large forest areas.
 - (c) Its tobacco market.
22. Baltimore is noted for:
 - (a) Its agriculture.
 - (b) A manufacturing centre.
 - (c) Its oyster fisheries.
23. Seattle is noted for:
 - (a) A great tourist city of Washington.
 - (b) A large lumber port on Pacific Coast.
 - (c) A salmon shipping city.
24. Jersey City is noted for:
 - (a) Its manufacturing.
 - (b) Its truck gardening.
 - (c) Its wonderful creameries.
25. Washington, D. C., is noted for:
 - (a) Its beautiful streets, parks, and homes.
 - (b) Its extensive manufacturing.
 - (c) Its commercial interest.

Suggestive Problems

1. You are teaching an eighth grade. You have adequate material for teaching the social studies on the unified basis and your course of study is so planned. However, the texts and reference material are written in separate fields. How may you guide the pupils' study?
2. Make an outline of desirable abilities in silent reading in the Social Studies.
3. Plan a set of exercises for an upper grade class in the use of the card catalogue in a modern library. (If you have no school library you may arrange to take your class to the public library.)
4. Plan a series of lessons on the use of the dictionary.

5. Plan a lesson with the problem method, selecting your own problem.
6. Make a suitable test in Current Events.
7. Make a suitable objective test on the Social Studies.
8. Outline a plan for training a seventh and eighth grade class to make a graph from a statistical table.
9. An eighth grade class seems to have but one method of preparing the history assignments, that of memorizing the content. Indicate how you would proceed to improve this situation.
10. Outline a lesson for having your eighth grade pupils classify the types of architecture of a few of the prominent buildings in your city.

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There is in process of publication a series of notable reports sponsored by the American Historical Association, under the general title Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools. The first of these reports, *A Charter for the Social Sciences*, drafted by Charles A. Beard, has just appeared, published by Charles Scribner's Sons.

Pictures (sources arranged by Mrs. Agnes Moe Lund, San Francisco State Teachers College) may be secured at small cost.

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CHAPTER XI

THE TEACHING OF ARITHMETIC

Preview Questions

1. Why should we teach arithmetic?
2. What are the chief principles of drill?
3. What should guide us in our selection of arithmetic problems?
4. What types of competition in arithmetic are desirable?
5. Of what value are scientifically prepared work books in arithmetic?
6. How would you provide for individual differences in arithmetic?

Objectives.—We must all know clearly why we give instruction in arithmetic, what it has to contribute in enriching the pupil's life, and how it connects the pupil with his environment. Some of our major objectives are as follows:

1. The ability and habit of understanding some of the most important quantitative aspects of his environment.
2. The ability to understand numerical aspects within the limits of needs of the average citizen.
3. The ability to interpret the economic phases of his social and industrial environment.
4. The ability to use arithmetic as a tool of interpretation and understanding.
5. The ability and habit of solving arithmetical problems of ordinary life with speed and accuracy.

New Processes.—In developing new processes with the pupils, care should be observed to unfold the new elements slowly step by step. We must know how the pupil's mind reacts and what is his background of experience which contributes to these reactions. We must know what methods of instruction are the best psychologically. In other words, by what processes or methods of instruction does the pupil's mind understand the new elements to the best advantage. The most desirable methods may be found by a study of psychological investigations in this field and by studied observation. If a class has difficulty in comprehending new processes, we as teachers should study carefully our methods of instruction to ascertain the cause of this difficulty. It may be due to our method of presentation.

Diagnostic Measures.—We must know difficulties and their causes to plan our remedial instruction efficiently. The intelligent study of the results of standardized and non-standardized tests must be made. The tests in the first place must be such that they test what we want or should have tested. These tests will be outlined later in the chapter. One such method of determining difficulties was made by the author.¹ This study "indicates quite definitely the type of errors made by groups of pupils, showing the difficult phases of some of the fundamental processes which need the most attention in the teaching and drill work done upon these processes.

"An attempt was made to locate the difficulty in the Courtis Tests given in Seattle. Eight hundred and twelve papers from six schools chosen at random were

² Gist, Arthur S., *Elementary School Supervision*. Chap. VI. Scribner's Sons, 1926.

examined and the cause of error in each example in subtraction, multiplication, and division was carefully noted and tabulated. The number examined was thought to be sufficiently large to represent conditions in the entire city.

"The tables and graphs following show the per cent each error is of the total number of errors made in each process, *e. g.*, in subtraction in the fourth grade, 54 per cent of the total errors were in borrowing. Omissions refer to the number of pairs of digits omitted altogether. Reversions occur when 9 should have been taken from 8 but the digits were reversed. The error indicated by $7-0=0$ is only typical of many similar mistakes when a cipher occurs. The left-hand digit caused some trouble especially in the eighth grade. In the example,

$$\begin{array}{r} 107795491 \\ 77197029 \\ \hline 130598462 \end{array}$$

the left-hand digit was carried down.

"No explanation seems necessary in the multiplication tables. It is interesting to note that a cipher in the multiplier caused more trouble in the eighth grade than in the fourth, where recent drill seems to have prevented this difficulty.

"In division the 'Remainder too large' caused less trouble in the upper grades than in the lower grades, where the processes are not as yet thoroughly mastered.

"The total errors not equalling 100 per cent is due to the fact that scattering mistakes were dropped. It will be noted that the same error is quite constant in each grade. In one seventh grade the percentage of

errors in division with 908 as the quotient was found to be 8 per cent, while in the city but 4 per cent.

"In another seventh grade 55 per cent of the errors in division were found to be the multiplication, while the city average was 37 per cent. In a fourth grade in division multiplication caused 33 per cent of the trouble, while with the city it caused but 22 per cent. In a fifth grade in division the remainder being too large caused 66 per cent of the difficulty, while with the city but 39 per cent. In another fifth grade in multiplication a cipher in the multiplier caused 12 per cent of the trouble, while with the city but 6 per cent. In a sixth grade in multiplication, adding caused 35 per cent of the trouble, while the city per cent was but 22.

"Multiplication in division caused 34 per cent of the trouble with one sixth grade, while with the city but 19 per cent. In one eighth grade in subtraction the left-hand digit caused 10 per cent of the difficulty, while with the city but 2 per cent.

"There was also noted considerable constancy of errors in the examples on the same paper. One pupil who attempted 13 with 6 right in multiplication made all of his mistakes in adding. One fifth-grade pupil with 5 attempted and one right in division made all of his mistakes in having the remainder too large. A seventh-grade pupil with 13 attempted in division and 9 right made 3 errors in multiplication. An eighth-grade pupil who attempted 9 in division with 2 right made all of his mistakes in subtraction. Four or five pupils in various grades multiplied by 1 whenever they had a cipher in the multiplier.

"To eliminate errors it is necessary to definitely locate them, that teachers and pupils may know where

the greatest possibility of error is, and that problems be specially prepared to give the kind of drill necessary. As in the last error listed in division, problems with a cipher in the quotient should be given to eliminate this type of error."

Dr. Woody¹ made an interesting study through the co-operation of the educational department of three large mercantile establishments. He checked the type of errors made by 800 salespeople for a single month. The various kinds of errors are as follows:

Wrong extensions—nearly all fractional parts	159
Wrong additions	53
Wrong discounts	30
Wrong subtractions	9
Total.....	251

Especial attention is called to:

- The predominance of errors with fractional parts.
- Failure to estimate the reasonableness of the result.
- The relatively simple fractions involved.
- The small number of addends in the addition problems.
- The difficulty in calculating 15%.

A partial list of some of the errors follows:

1½ doz. Tally Cards	@ .25	.37
⅞ yd. veiling	1.75	1.09
¾ yd. elastic20	.13
3¾ yds. ribbon	1.00	3.34
⅞ yd. Crepe	2.55	.44
¼ yd. Tricolet65	.14
6 Soap	3/25	.25
2⅔ doz. nut cups25	.57
2⅔ yds. netting30	.80

¹ Woody, Clifford, "Types of Arithmetic Needed in Certain Types of Salesmanship," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XXII, pp. 505-520, March, 1922.

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4¾ yds. Cretonne55	1.86
6 prs. Hose85	4.50
½ doz. grape goblets	1.50	.63
4 yds. coating	6.50	28.00
2 yds. plaiting25	.25
2 yds. plaiting25	.38
1½ yds. Muslin20	.25
1½ yds. rubber sheeting	2.00	1.50

Remedial Measures. —When the cause of difficulty has been determined, the necessary type of drill work must be given to remove or lessen the difficulty. Often it is best to use individualized instructional methods as the pupils may present such a wide range of difficulties and ability to improve under instruction that class drills do not fit the need of all. Work books suitable for this purpose are listed later in the chapter. The modified form, between the class and the individual method, is the group organization which many teachers use to advantage. Dividing the class in arithmetic into groups according to ability has many distinct advantages. The work given to each group can be planned to suit the need better than when a large class is managed as one unit upon the same work. The teacher often has a better opportunity for giving individual assistance and in checking results than in the larger group.

Drill Work.—Repetition seems to be necessary to fix processes in mind. We must, therefore, plan for it intelligently, understanding basic principles of drill, a few of which are as follows:

1. Drill is necessary to clear up hazy conceptions which the pupils have, and to familiarize the teacher with difficulties. We learn by doing, which requires actual performance by the pupil to develop skill. Until the pupils actually begin to perform arithmetical proc-

esses, we do not know their understanding of the new process developed.

2. Drill is necessary to habituate skills. It is one thing to know how to use a skill and still another thing to develop this skill until its use becomes a fixed habit. We may possess the skill of writing legibly but do not always write well because we have not habituated this acquired skill.

3. Drill should be directed toward the real need of the class or of the individual as determined by the diagnostic tests.

We dissipate our efforts unless these tests are intelligently directed. If a class or an individual pupil is weak in long division processes we must study the cause carefully. It may be due to a hazy conception of the multiplication tables, to subtraction, or to the trial divisor. Type exercises to develop skill in this difficulty should then be developed. For example, carrying in multiplication should begin with easy exercises and many of them. Such exercises can well be prepared and given to the pupils in mimeographed form.

4. Drills should be short but snappy. We work best when stimulated to perform work efficiently and with dispatch. The exhaustion period is reached so soon we must avoid prolonged drill exercises upon the same processes.

5. Drills should be frequent, so scheduled that necessary processes are not neglected for long periods of time. Possibly short, well-planned drill should be provided each day.

6. Previous work should be included in all our planning of drill. Difficult work of preceding grades should always be included in the drill exercises. This requires

a thorough knowledge of the complete course of study that review exercises are adequately provided. What may appear like lack of knowledge of the processes of previous grades may be nothing but lack of sufficient drill of a review nature.

7. Standards of achievement should be set up as a goal toward which the pupils should strive. It is not enough to improve as degrees of improvement should be definitely determined. Work books and modern arithmetics have carefully prepared scales by which to judge improvement and attainments. Many of these goals have been determined by extensive research with large numbers of pupils. Many teachers have also found that they can set up standards for their own carefully prepared exercises. These classroom standards may well suit the ability of the pupils. Some educators feel that all pupils should have the same standards even though some require more time to attain the desired results. Others feel that the ability of the pupil should determine the standard he should attain. It is doubtful as to the wisdom of holding the weaker, slower, and nervous pupils to the same speed and accuracy standards attained by the most capable pupils. This is a problem for the individual teacher to analyze with the assistance of her principal and supervisor. Surely some standard of sufficient merit should guide all the drill work in arithmetic.

8. The enthusiastic interest of the pupils should motivate the drills. Lack of interest and motive are likely to lessen the results. Contests often arouse sufficient interest to secure enthusiastic effort which is necessary in all school practices. These contests may be of a group competitive nature or they may better still be an

individual matter in which each pupil strives to attain his own goal. This goal may be merely surpassing his previous record which often spurs the pupil to real effort. Games planned by many teachers in the primary grades are a real incentive. The following games have been found to be very satisfactory by some teachers:

1. *Relay Race.*

Place on the board two horizontal rows of 9 or 15 combinations, thus:

BOYS										
2	4	3		2	6	3		4	3	2
3	5	9		2	4	6		9	3	6

GIRLS										
2	4	3		2	6	3		4	3	2
3	5	9		2	4	6		9	3	6

Have three pupils work at each line. The first pupil writes the answers to the first three combinations and hands the crayon to the second. When the second finishes he hands it to the third. The three who finish first win the race.

2. *The Sum of Two Numbers.*

"I am thinking of two numbers whose sum is eight." Child asks, "Is it 3 and 5?" etc., until the correct answer is given, when the one guessing correctly is allowed to take the leader's place.

3. *Tag Board.*

Hold up tag board cards having some combination written on each side. Call two children to the front. The child giving the correct answer first wins the card. Use ten or twelve cards and see which one wins the card. Use ten or twelve cards and see which one wins the greater number. This may be used for a contest between the boys and the girls, and a score kept.

4. "*Combinations.*"

Write three or four combinations on the board. Have some child stand with his back to the board and give the results.

5. "*Answers.*"

Have each child take pencil and paper and write answers to eight or ten combinations which have been held up on the tag board cards one at a time.

6. "*Number Card.*"

Each child holds a number card. One child goes to the centre of the circle and holds up a card. The child who is called upon adds the number on his own card to the number on the card held by the child in the middle of the ring. If he gives the result correctly he changes places with the child in the centre. This may be used for multiplication also.

7. Two rows of pupils face each other. A number is written on the board, as 10 for instance. The leader of the first side gives any number below 10, as 6. The other leader then gives the number which added to 6 will make 10, as 4, and so on until all the combinations of 10 have been given.

8. "*Choosing Sides.*"

Leaders choose sides as for a spelling match. The class may be numbered in two sections, if one prefers, and the class is seated during the game. Two leaders pass to the board. Give an example in addition which is copied on the board. The first correct answer counts one for that side. If neither answer was right, the answers only were erased and the next pair worked that same example. Give examples in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. The side having the highest score wins.

9. The class copy on their paper from the blackboard digits arranged in any order by the teacher, as

8-48
4-24
12-72
0-0
5-30
7-42
2-12
9-54
1-6
3-18
11-66
6-36
10-60

The teacher says, "Multiply by 6." When the results are obtained the child stands with his paper. As soon as all the pupils in a row are standing, the pupil who sits in the first seat calls the number of his row, which the teacher writes upon the blackboard as: 1 — 3 — 2. The teacher then asks some child to read his results. Pupils who agree with this reading sit, while those who disagree remain standing. Numbers of rows on the blackboard are cancelled when a mistake has been made. This teaches accuracy as well as rapid work. After a drill of this kind, the figures on the blackboard are added to ascertain which row won. It looks something like the following if five drills are given:

1	3	2
1	3	2
1	3	2
1	3	2
1	3	2
<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
3	2	4

Row "2" won in this case.

Problem Solving.—The difficulties in problem solving present several very definite aspects.

1. The selection of problems presents the first difficulty. We should first consider problems which are of most use to the pupils at the present time. These problems must be within the pupils' range of experience. This can be accomplished by originating problems connected with the pupils' environment or by planning a classroom activity which will create an experience necessary for a thorough understanding of the social background surrounding the problem. It is doubtful as to the value of arithmetic problems in the elementary schools which do not have a real, vital social approach with which the pupil is thoroughly familiar and interested. This eliminates mathematical puzzles given purely for the purpose of mental discipline. Sufficient mental training can be provided by confining our problems to the pupils' interests and experiences.

2. The causes of difficulties in problem solving generally group themselves under one of two classifications. The cause may be mistakes with the mechanics or lack of knowledge of the processes involved in the problems. In either case the drill upon the mechanics may well be taken separately from the problem solving. We then go back to our principles of drill to develop and habituate the necessary skills. The other chief cause is lack of understanding of the problem, its conditions and social aspects. Silent reading deficiencies may be a cause. This requires definite exercises in silent reading, using only the arithmetic and generally the arithmetic period of the day. Silent reading in this field should not be disassociated from it. Because of vocabularies peculiar to each field, the individual inter-

ests and varying experience, it is doubtful as to the carry-over ability in silent reading from one field to another. The following exercises¹ are illustrative of those which may be used:

MORE OR LESS TEST

(SUITABLE FOR 6TH GRADE)

TO THE PUPIL

Cross off the word "more" or "less" which does not apply to the problem.

1. If I lost money, the selling price is (more or less) than the cost.
2. If I know the cost of $\frac{7}{8}$ yd., the cost of 1 yd. will be (more or less) than $\frac{7}{8}$ yds.
3. If I gain, the selling price is (more or less) than the cost.
4. If I know the cost of 1 yd., $2\frac{1}{2}$ yds. will cost (more or less) than 1 yd.
5. The cost of $\frac{1}{2}$ yd. will be (more or less) than the cost of 1 yd.
6. If I change inches to feet, I will have (more or less) feet.
7. If I change bushels to pecks, I will have (more or less) pecks.
8. If I know the total weight of five boys, the average weight will be (more or less) than the total.
9. If I know the length of one side of a square, the distance around will be (more or less) than the length of one side.
10. If I know the distance around the square, one side will be (more or less) than the distance around.

TEST ON THE THOUGHT OF PROBLEMS

GRADES 5 AND 6

Suggested time limits: 5th Grade—10 minutes

6th Grade— 8 minutes

¹ Gist, Arthur S., and King, William A., *The Teaching and Supervision of Reading*, Chap. VII. Scribners, 1927.

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TO THE PUPIL

Write "Yes" or "No" after each question.

1. Sixty Easter eggs are divided equally among 7 children, I receiving what is left. Do I receive as many as they?
.....
2. Yesterday the hens laid 70 eggs. One neighbor buys 3 dozen. Do we have enough left to sell another neighbor 2 dozen?
3. Last week John earned 75 cents selling papers. If he earns as much this week, will he have enough to purchase a ball costing \$1.25?
4. I can buy two oranges for 5 cents or 25 cents a dozen. Is it cheaper for me to buy them by the dozen?
5. A boy has \$3.25 in the bank. If he earns \$2.00 this week, will he have enough to buy a pair of shoes costing \$5.50?
.....
6. A boy has \$2.00. Can he buy a bat costing 65 cents and a ball costing \$1.25?
7. If the distance from Seattle to Portland is 207 miles and our car can be driven 20 miles on one gallon of gas, will 11 gallons be enough to take us the entire distance?
.....
8. A bicycle cost \$20 and a horn for it \$1.50. If I sell papers four weeks and earn \$4 each week, will I have enough to buy both?

TEST ON THE THOUGHT OF PROBLEMS

GRADES 7, 8, AND 9

Suggested time limits: 7th Grade—12 minutes

8th Grade—10 minutes

9th Grade— 8 minutes

TO THE PUPIL

Write "Yes" or "No" after each question.

1. John was four years old in 1910. Was he old enough to vote in 1922?

2. I can buy one kind of picture-moulding for 10 cents a foot and put it up myself, or I can have it put up for 33 cents a yard. Can I save by putting it up myself?
3. John has \$10 and James three times as much. Together have they enough to buy a radio outfit costing \$45?
.....
4. The man I am working for owes me \$15 and I have \$7.25. Have I enough to purchase a bicycle costing \$23?
.....
5. James earned \$15 and still has one-half of it in the bank. Has he enough to purchase football shoes for \$3.75, and a football for \$5.00?
6. A man's debts amount to \$2,000. If he sells a lot for \$1,250 and draws out his bank account of \$600, can he settle his debts?
7. I can buy apples for 40 cents a dozen. Will it be cheaper for me to buy a box of 150 for \$4.50?
8. Two boys can carry a load of wood into the basement in three hours. Will it take three boys four hours to carry it in?
9. A man can raise 150 bushels of wheat on eight acres of land. If he buys four acres more, will he have enough land to raise 250 bushels of wheat?
10. If I earn \$2.25 every Saturday as a caddy, will I earn enough in five Saturdays to buy a second-hand bicycle costing \$12.00?

COMPLETION TEST

GRADES 5 AND 6

Suggested time limits: 5th Grade—10 minutes

6th Grade— 7 minutes

TO THE PUPIL

Each of these problems contains a missing fact necessary to solve it. Supply this fact.

1. A boy cuts $4\frac{3}{4}$ feet from his kite-string. How much was left?

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2. John weighs $81\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. How much more does he weigh than Ruth, his sister?
3. John earns \$4.00 a week selling papers and saves \$3.50. How many weeks will it take to save enough money to buy the bicycle?
4. \$12.70 was taken in at our last "movie." How many tickets were sold?
5. A man drove his car 400 miles. How many miles did he get on each gallon of gas?
6. Mary's father paid \$1.80 for a piece of meat. How much did he pay a pound?
7. What will a $5\frac{1}{2}$ -lb. roast of lamb cost?
8. A merchant sold a thirty-dozen case of eggs at 35 cents a dozen. What was his profit?
9. James's father drove from Seattle to Portland in $8\frac{1}{2}$ hours. What was the average speed per hour?
10. If our school grounds are 275 feet by 425 feet, what will it cost to build an iron fence around it?

3. Pupils should be trained to use the necessary tables of weights, measures, and time efficiently. Possibly the pupils should memorize a few of those in common use. They should be able, however, to locate all tables readily in their arithmetic texts for reference purposes. The extensive memorizing of all such tables, regardless of their use in problems and in every-day life, should be avoided.

4. Computations involved in the problem solving should be limited to the pupil's ability to handle efficiently. Large numbers, beyond the pupil's ability to comprehend, should be eliminated. This further justifies the socializing of all the arithmetic problems.

5. Teachers should also be familiar with the number of steps involved in each problem. Some pupils are confused by too many steps, some of which the adult may solve mentally not realizing that the pupil must take

one step at a time carefully and often with limited problem-solving ability. We must always be conscious of the number of steps involved in each problem to guide the pupils carefully through their difficulties.

6. Problems may be originated by the teacher and pupils working together. History may be taken as a desirable source. The following problems were arranged by a fifth grade teacher:

1. Fulton's steamboat, the *Clermont*, made the trip of 150 miles from New York to Albany in 32 hours. How many miles did it go in one hour?
2. The *Majestic*, a large passenger boat, is 956 feet long. How many boats the size of the *Clermont* could be placed end to end beside the *Majestic*?
3. The Erie Canal was started in 1817 and finished in 1825. How many years did it take to dig it? How many months?
4. It cost \$10 before the canal was dug to carry a barrel of flour from Buffalo to Albany. Now it costs 30 cents. How much is saved on every barrel?
5. In 1833 there were 380 miles of railroads in the United States. Now there are more than 240,000 miles. How many miles have been built since then?
6. The Mexican Cession contained 545,783 square miles and Texas 576,133 square miles. How much more did Texas contain than the Mexican Cession?
7. Alaska cost us \$7,200,000. How much have we made on her products up to the present time?
8. One railroad in Alaska cost \$2,000,000 for the first 20 miles. How much was that for each mile?
9. Ezra Meeker, a Seattle pioneer, travelled 2600 miles across country with an ox team in eleven months. How many days was that?
10. How long would it take an automobile today to go the same distance if it went at the rate of 180 miles a day?

Arithmetic may also be used as a part of a unit of

instruction. The following list of activities is illustrative:

1. What do we need to know to compute the cost of a miniature golf grounds?
2. What uses has your father for arithmetic?
3. What do we need to know to find the cost of building a canoe?
4. How would we compute the cost of putting in a water system for a city of 100,000?
5. How would we find the cost you are to your parents for one year?

Practical Phases.—During recent years we have eliminated many topics which appeared in our arithmetics of former days. Following is a list of some of recent omissions:

1. Certain phases of compound numbers.
2. G. C. D. and L. C. M. not found by inspection.
3. Long confusing problems involving complex fractions.
4. Reduction of denominate numbers.
5. Unusual applications of percentage.
6. Partial payments.
7. True discount.
8. Proportion.
9. Partnership with time.
10. Longitude and time.
11. Exchange—domestic and foreign.
12. Apothecaries' weight.
13. Table of folding paper.
14. Surveyor's table.
15. Areas of usual figures.
16. Cube root.
17. Metric system.

Recitations.—This period of the day should be as carefully planned as any. Arithmetic is a mechanical subject and does not justify less preparation than that required in any other field. It is best to plan for a variety of activities to avoid monotony and habituate skill in all phases of the subject. Following is a list of activities which one sixth grade teacher provided for her pupils during a forty-minute period:

1. Reduction of fractions.
2. Ratio problems.
3. Review of decimal point.
4. Practice upon standardized material.
5. Assignment, discussion, and demonstration of work for study period.

The habit of sending groups of pupils to the blackboard to work problems for checking purposes is a somewhat common practice of doubtful value. Demonstration of problems causing one pupil difficulty is also of little benefit, especially if such demonstration is given by some pupil who solves such problems easily but may not be able to explain the various steps clearly. Pupils having difficulty should be trained to work under skillful guidance step by step until they can perform each step because of a thorough understanding. This requires far more skill than merely explaining a solved problem. Explanations may confuse the pupil and leave him with little understanding of the social conditions and necessary mechanics. Guidance will develop power which produces interest and self-esteem in attainment.

Work Books.—Work books in the field of arithmetic are valuable. Most of them are scientifically prepared in such a manner that review exercises are sys-

tematically treated. Some provide test and practice exercises. Following is a list of some in common use:

- Brueckner, L. J., Anderson, C. J., Banting, G. O., and Merton, Elda L., *Diagnostic Tests and Practice Exercises in Arithmetic*. The John C. Winston Company, 1929.
- Freeland, George E., and Staffelbach, Elmer H., *Exercises in Change Making*. American Book Company.
- Lennes, N. J., *Test and Practice Sheets in Arithmetic*. Laidlaw Brothers.
- McMurry, Benson, A. R., *Arithmetic*. The Macmillan Company, 1927.
- Robertson, M. S., and Rugg, L. S., *Primary Arithmetic Pad*. Grades 2 and 3. D. C. Heath & Company, 1928.
- Ruch, G. M., Knight, F. B., and Studebaker, J. W., *Arithmetic Work Book*. Scott, Foresman & Company, 1925.
- Schorling, Raleigh, Clark, John R., and Potter, Mary A., *Instructional Tests in Arithmetic*. Grades 5, 6, 7, 8. World Book Company, 1928.
- Thompson, Thomas E., and Boulware, Alex S., *Practice Tests in Their Four Fundamentals of Arithmetic*. Grades 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8. Rand, McNally & Company, 1926.
- Oakland Public Schools, *Pupils' Arithmetic Work Book*. Oakland Public Schools, Oakland, California.

Standardized Tests.—Following is a list of standardized tests which are rated as valuable by experts of arithmetic:

1. *Buckingham Scales for Problems in Arithmetic*. Division I is suitable for grades three and four; Division II is for grades five and six; Division III is for grades seven and eight. There are two forms for each division. These tests may be secured from the Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.
2. Buswell, John, *Diagnostic Test for Fundamental Processes in Arithmetic*. There are four pages in this test, each page containing one of the four fundamental processes, ranging from very easy to very difficult. These tests are suitable for diagnostic purposes and may be used in any grade teach-

ing Arithmetic. The Public School Publishing Company publishes this test.

3. Brueckner, Anderson, Banting, and Merton, *Diagnostic Tests and Remedial Exercises in Arithmetic*. These tests are suitable for grades three to eight with separate books for each grade. The material constitutes work books as well as diagnostic tests, each book covering about 150 pages of practice exercises. John A. Winston Company publishes the material.

4. Curtis, *Research Test in Arithmetic*, Series B. These tests are very widely used. They contain Forms 1, 2, 3, and 4 for use in grades four to eight. Each of the tests contains twenty-four uniform examples in one of the four fundamentals. These tests may be secured from Curtis Standard Tests, 1807 East Grand Boulevard, Detroit, Michigan.

5. *Monroe General Survey Scales in Arithmetic* has two scales with three forms each. Scale I is suitable for grades three, four, and five; and Scale II is for grades six, seven, and eight. The Public School Publishing Company publishes these tests.

6. *Stanford Arithmetic Examination*, Forms A and B. This test is in two parts, computation and reasoning. It may be secured from the World Book Company.

7. Woody, *Arithmetic Scales*, Series A and Series B. Forms I and II. Each series contains four scales, one for each fundamental process, suitable for grades three to eight. They may be secured from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

Suggestive Problems

1. Plan a developing lesson in long division for a class new to this process.
2. Make a suitable exercise to test a class on their skill in using the four operations of whole numbers; common fractions; decimal fractions.
3. Of what value is Dr. Woody's study, outlined in this chapter, to us in our arithmetic instruction?
4. Plan a suitable exercise for a class weak in division of fractions.
5. Plan an exercise in originating arithmetic problems.

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6. Outline a plan of diagnosing the results of a standard test in arithmetic.
7. Make a list of the disadvantages of posting in rank order the pupils' results in arithmetic.
8. Outline a suitable lesson for having a sixth grade class understand equivalent values in common and decimal fractions.

Selected References

- Almack, J. C., and Lang, A. R., *The Beginning Teacher*. Chap. XVII. This is a well-written chapter on aims, drill, problem-solving, and testing results. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1928.
- Brueckner, L. J., *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching in Arithmetic*. John C. Winston Company, 1930.
- Burton, W. H., and Others, *The Supervision of Elementary Schools*. Chap. II. D. Appleton & Company, 1929.
- Charters, W. W., *Curriculum Construction*. Chap. XVII. This chapter is valuable as it gives the social and business arithmetic actually in use. Macmillan Company, 1923.
- Freeland, G. E., Adams, R. M., Hall, W. H., *Teaching in Intermediate Grades*. Chapters XI and XII. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1927.
- Garrison, S. C. and K. C., *The Psychology of Elementary School Subjects*. Chapters XIX, XX, XXI. Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond, Virginia, 1929.
- Gist, Arthur S., *Elementary School Supervision*. Chap. VI. This chapter gives the purposes of Arithmetic instruction, diagnostic and remedial measures, drill, oral work, problem work, lesson assignments, study periods, and recitations. Scribners, 1926.
- Gist, Arthur S., and King, W. A., *The Teaching and Supervision of Reading*. Chap. VII. This chapter contains 20 exercises in silent reading of arithmetic problems. Scribners, 1927.
- Moore, Annie E., *The Primary School*. Chap. XIV. This chapter outlines the values of arithmetic instruction, where and how such teaching should begin, what phases children need, purposeful drill, and arithmetic games for primary grades. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925.

Mossman, L. C., *Teaching and Learning in the Elementary School*. Chap. X. This chapter gives an account of seeing arithmetic situations, sequence of learning processes, the use of diagnosis, accuracy and speed, and controversial phases of arithmetic teaching. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929.

Newcomb, R. S., *Modern Methods of Teaching Arithmetic*. This book discusses the history of arithmetic teaching, the psychology, socialization, drill, the recitation, and the methods of teaching the various phases of arithmetic. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1926.

Osburn, W. J., *Corrective Arithmetic*. The entire book is excellent for any teacher of arithmetic as it gives a definite account of how to discover pupils' needs, practice material, what to teach in each grade, basic principles of method, and games. The appendix is valuable as it classifies exercises according to difficulties. Houghton Mifflin Company, Vol. I, 1924; Vol. II, 1929.

Parker, S. C., *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning*. Chap. VII. A good account of the basic principles of drill. Ginn & Company, 1923.

— *General Methods of Teaching in Elementary Schools*. Chap. X. Ginn & Company, 1919.

Thorndike, E. L., *New Methods in Arithmetic*. This book is suggestive and interesting as it gives the vocational reason for arithmetic instruction, the type of problems necessary, types of common errors, terms, definitions, and rules for each grade. Rand, McNally & Company, 1921.

Third Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, Chap. III. This chapter is valuable as it gives an annotated list of scientific studies upon various phases of arithmetic instruction. National Educational Association, Washington, D. C.

Twenty-ninth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education. This yearbook is published in two volumes. Volume one is on some aspects of "Modern Thought on Arithmetic." Volume two is on "Research in Arithmetic." These two volumes contain one of the most comprehensive, scientific, and helpful studies in the field. Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois, 1930.

CHAPTER XII

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Preview Questions

1. What are the major health objectives? Physical education objectives?
2. How would you ascertain which pupils should be examined by the physician between regular scheduled examinations?
3. What should you inspect daily regarding your pupils' habits of personal cleanliness?
4. What medical records should the school have for each pupil?
5. What are some valuable out-of-door activities?
6. What types of safety instruction should the school provide?
7. What types of apparatus are valuable for physical education?

Terminology.—We have evolved considerably in our beliefs regarding health instruction and physical education since Herbert Spencer¹ issued his famous aims of education, placing health as one of the most important. In his chapter on Physical Education, written in 1833, he states, "The physical underlies the mental. The mental should not be developed at the expense of the physical." One of the early forms of physical education was the formalized calisthenics which was introduced for the purpose of developing symmetrical bodies and to provide some relaxation for the pupils during the school day. In most schools athletics in

¹ Spencer, Herbert, *Education*. D. Appleton & Co., 1880.

some form were already in vogue with little connection in aims, programmes, or organization to the formal gymnastics. Later in many schools we find some attention to health. In many instances this was largely a matter of quarantine regulations and prevention of the spread of contagion. In most cases this meant some examination of the pupils. These examinations, conducted largely by outside health authorities, revealed to the medical profession the need of complete physical examinations with corrective and preventive measures of all kinds. The initial practices in this regard were conducted very largely by physicians who donated their time, or by physicians who were employed for part time. Thus we had the health programme, the formalized calisthenics, and organized inter-school athletics. These three units had no co-ordinating agency. The classroom teacher was found to be largely responsible for discovering the pupils with physical ailments and for the follow-up measures later. It was thought also that we had many elements common to health, calisthenics, and athletics. We, therefore, co-ordinated these three programmes in one department, generally known as the physical education department.

Now that we begin to see but few common elements between some phases of organized games and contests and health development, we are just beginning in some places to think of health and physical education in distinct units of our organization plans. In some public schools we find well-organized health and physical education departments co-ordinated under one head. In some cities this individual is a physician who emphasizes health programmes with a physical education expert under him in charge of that work. In other places

we find a physical education department with a specialist to supervise health instruction in the schools working in that department. We find also in some of these same school systems another department known as the medical department, which functions in matters of health of the pupils but not in the instruction of the pupils in health development or health habits. While these various departments should either be co-ordinated under one head or function efficiently together as two departments, it seems best in this chapter to follow a recent tendency of considering Health and Physical Education separately.

Health Aims.—Separate and distinct functioning and discussion is only possible when we consider definite purposes for each. Health has for its aims, sanitary conditions, the development of an accurate set of facts regarding health, and the right attitudes and skills to establish habits conducive to good health.

Physical Education Aims.—The aims of physical education have to do with all motor activities which tend to stimulate the pupil mentally, develop a sound body, and ability in social contacts. Health is a matter of knowledge and attitudes toward health, while physical education has to do with motor skill and sound social contacts in games and contests.

Health Instruction.—Health instruction may be classified under two divisions, health and sanitary conditions and instruction of health facts and the development of right ideals toward Health. The first has to do with proper classroom lighting, ventilation, school-house cleanliness, and sanitation. These features have been discussed to some extent in the chapter upon Management. The pupils, in being surrounded by socializ-

ing opportunities, can well be trained to assist in maintaining sanitary conditions about the school. It might be possible in an occasional school to provide sufficient janitorial service and supervision to assure adequate cleanliness and sanitary conditions at all times. However, we would be depriving the pupils of some splendid socializing opportunities. They should be trained to keep the toilet rooms clean, the walls free from markings, and the grounds throughout free from paper and rubbish, as it is their school. They should have sufficient pride to assume their full share in maintaining sanitary and orderly conditions at all times. The examination of the walls of toilet rooms and the grounds in most schools will indicate our degree of success in developing these ideals. A comparison with the walls of public toilets will show us conclusively that the pupils in the schools have higher ideals in this respect than many adults using the public toilets. This clean-mindedness is another example of far-reaching results of the public schools. Many adults, during their school days, did not have the socializing opportunities provided the pupils in our modern schools. Through the schools we work for the next generation of adult citizenship.

Health examinations should be so administered that all pupils have the advantage of thorough inspection by a competent physician annually. Parents often wish to be present when such examinations take place. This is highly desirable in most cases as it helps in securing home co-operation. The health work should be so organized that a pupil may also be examined at any time the teacher regards it necessary. As a classroom teacher you are fast becoming familiar with some of the early

symptoms of many of the diseases common to young childhood. You should have such pupils examined at once to avoid contagion and assure adequate health development.

You may teach in a community in which certain parents object to these physical examinations on religious grounds. It is best to respect a person's religious belief whenever possible. In some states legislative enactments have been passed to prevent such examination when the parents object. In matters of contagion or suspected contagion such parents are generally given the option of permitting their children to be examined or of withdrawing them from school until the epidemic is passed. You will want to assist the medical authorities in avoiding contagion and in building strong, sound bodies. In doing so it would be to your advantage to avoid unpleasant issues with parents whenever possible.

Health Habits and Attitudes.—To you as a classroom teacher will be delegated a large share in developing health ideals and information. If the pupils know definitely the health information desirable for them to know, a necessary step has been taken in developing proper health ideals, attitudes, and habits. Possibly the most effective means is to instill in your pupils the real motive for such attitudes and habits. The development of adequate health habits is not an end in itself, but a means to an end. It means happiness and vocational success, not attainable with weak bodies. Unsound physiques mean possible loss of time, financial reverses, and contamination to associates. Weak bodies also mean serious handicaps in athletics. Your pupils are hero worshippers. They are imitators and

enjoy emulating these heroes. Such heroes, when of the athletic type, will do much to build up ideals toward proper health habits so that the pupils may seek to accomplish much on the athletic field. The pupils' worship of athletes may be used to motivate a desirable type of health instruction.

A daily health inspection by the teacher is advisable with most pupils. Parents generally endorse such daily examinations as they tend to supplement the home efforts. These daily inspection are usually directed toward personal cleanliness, such as clothing, hands, fingernails, and teeth. You as a teacher will want to secure at least a daily cleaning of the fingernails and the teeth. Inspection will often encourage the pupil to pay attention to these items. You will want, also, to look for any evidence of a contagious disease. You should be alert for colds, for rash, flushed faces, or any unusual health appearance. The daily attention to these conditions is one of your major responsibilities in matters of health. You will find that this will soon become automatic and thus take little of your time as a teacher.

Equipment for Health Plans.—Adequate equipment is necessary for the medical authorities and for the classroom teacher.

I. Building.

1. Sanitary, light, well ventilated, clean.
2. Toilet rooms, modern, conveniently located with reference to the playgrounds, and classrooms. Adolescent girls should not be required to climb many stairs. At least one toilet-stall in the toilet-room for the larger girls should have a door to provide dignified privacy at times.
3. Examination room, or nurse's room which is adequate for all examination purposes, including eye-testing.

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4. Rest-room containing rattan couches, blankets, hot-water bottles, ice-bags, granite-basins and towels.
5. Grounds, adequate, with approximately 100 square feet per child. No dangerous hazards such as high, unprotected retaining walls, dangerous and unsupervised play apparatus.
6. Drinking fountains, well placed upon the playgrounds and in the corridors.
7. Medicine case:
 - (a) Alcohol.
 - (b) Aromatic spirits of ammonia.
 - (c) Bicarbonate of soda.
 - (d) Boric acid.
 - (e) Clinical thermometer.
 - (f) Iodine or mercurochrome.
 - (g) Olive oil.
 - (h) Toothache medicine.

This medicine case should also contain a typed list of its articles, the purposes of each item and brief instructions as to their uses. You will find it helpful to have this pasted to the door of the case.

Instruction.—Your actual teaching of health may be done as a scheduled subject or incidentally as the occasion arises. We must have a definite course with adequate plans for each year and each month with interesting practical text-books.

The text-book should be written by authorities and those capable of writing in an interesting style for children. Illustrations, diagrams, and drawings add to the effectiveness of such material. Psychological principles of study as well as teacher helps should be in evidence in such books. Mechanically, the books on health should observe our modern aims and scientific studies.

Posters depicting suggestive health practices are also

valuable in health instruction. Ready-made posters are used to advantage by many teachers, as the principles of visual aids are effective. Such posters may be secured from such organizations as the Red Cross. Posters made by the pupils relying upon their own ideas are invaluable and should be made extensively.

Records.—It is valuable to keep some health records of all pupils. These records should be of the cumulative type, used throughout the elementary school. These may be filed in the principal's office, in the nurse's room, or in your classroom. In any case the health files should be accessible to you at all times for studying your pupils.

Physical Education Objectives.—Physical education at the present time seems to have the following aims:

1. Development of the body through natural motor activities.

2. To guide, control, and direct the motor urges which normal healthy children possess.

3. To stimulate the mental processes through vigorous, stimulating motor activities.

4. To develop the social contacts of children. This aim is fully as important as the physical purposes. Playground activities of the right sort present one of our best opportunities for developing character traits, such as teamwork, honesty, loyalty, and respect for the rights of others, so necessary in adult life.

It will readily be seen from these objectives, that the formalized calisthenics has little place in the modern programme of physical education. We attempt to classify pupils in playground activities according to their motor abilities, skills, and development. Corrective exercises for those requiring such remedial

measures may well be planned. However, unless the stimulating interest is present, little of value may be accomplished with these pupils. As we now base much of our educational aims upon natural, guided interests, formalized procedures have little place in physical education.

Natural Methods.—The natural method implies a definite programme of physical activities outlined somewhat formally yet carried out in such a manner that the natural play interests of the pupils are intelligently considered. Natural activities such as running, climbing, swimming, and dancing are examples of the motor skills which may well be used to develop the pupils. Thrusting the arms outward, upward, and downward to count or to music can scarcely be considered natural or of much value physically, and certainly of no value mentally or socially.

Play.—Play is a natural instinct in which pupils as well as the young of wild and domesticated animals engage freely and naturally to develop certain motor skills necessary in adult life. Games requiring great motor skill may well be used extensively both as free and as organized play. Though we are basing much of our modern educational programme upon interest, we may well consider play as a required part of aims, getting all pupils who are physically able to participate by stimulation and encouragement. As a classroom teacher you will be interested in organizing, supervising, and officiating playground games of all kinds. The pupils will enjoy having you with them, even participating at times. You will be able to characterize the social traits of your pupils better than in the classroom. The anti-social, hesitant, and unskilled pupil in motor ac-

tivities should receive your suggestion, advice, and encouragement the same as a backward pupil in the classroom. To overcome an anti-social tendency is fully as important as it is to correct certain speech defects in the classroom. Your failure in this respect may handicap the pupil in life fully as much as any academic weakness. You should attempt to secure one hundred per cent participation. Inter-school athletic contests are valuable for school spirit and to stimulate all pupils, yet intra-mural contests in which practically all participate should supplement the former. Remember that the valuable character traits, such as good sportsmanship, team-work and loyalty, are of far more importance to your pupils than winning every contest. To accomplish this you must be sportsmanlike and loyal yourself. Develop in your pupils respect for officials and for their decisions.

Dancing.—Rhythm constitutes a basis for some forms of motor activities. Folk dances of other countries which the pupils have studied arouse interest and are valuable in developing the rhythmic sense, grace, and suppleness. Clogging is appealing to pupils in the intermediate and upper grades. Dancing should well be an expression of emotions, natural and free from self-consciousness. It is very doubtful as to the value of any dance which is of the ballet type in the school.

Out-of-Door Activities.—Motor activities in the open air are very beneficial. The pupils receive the full benefit of deep breathing caused by vigorous exercise in pure, outside air. Many activities of this kind also develop deep-seated, life-long interests in the pupils. Hiking clubs provide for a most healthful, enjoyable activity as well as the social contacts of an organized

club. The pastime of hiking should be developed with all pupils so that it will carry over into adult life. Your pupils will enjoy your companionship on these hikes. Instructions can be given on the building of fires for cooking purposes, where to build such fires, and how to make sure all coals are extinguished upon leaving. It is not necessary to hike all day nor to build fires for cooking food. Cold lunches can be served to advantage.

Over-night trips when you and your pupils occupy the summer cabin of friends, or best of all when you sleep out-of-doors, possibly on the ground, is healthful and recreational. Camping with pupils is most enjoyable but brings up responsibilities which are rarely apparent on short hikes. You will want no accidents, such as drowning, broken limbs from climbing, or serious cuts from the careless use of a knife or an ax. You will find it interesting to discover your pupils' knowledge of nature. They will enjoy this out-of-doors study, especially when they are familiar with some bird, flower, or tree you do not know.

Clubs.—Organizations such as the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls are most valuable in certain phases of Physical Education and in training for good citizenship. When these clubs are efficiently guided, as they are in most places, you should encourage their activities with your pupils. If such an organization in your community does not seem to be functioning efficiently, possibly it is because of leadership. The parents and the pupils will be very glad to have you for leader. Such leadership will be most valuable to you as a teacher and to your pupils. You can become acquainted with your pupils in a most interesting man-

ner, and they will value your friendliness and companionship. This type of leadership will greatly assist you in becoming a successful teacher in the classroom.

Safety Instruction.—We are finding it necessary at the present time to give definite instruction in safety plans. In 1927, 93,078 persons in the United States lost their lives through accidents. Nineteen thousand, or 20 per cent of this number, were under the age of fifteen years, and 5985 were between the ages of fifteen and twenty. Estimates show 10,000,000 non-fatal accidents annually, with approximately 20 per cent of these accidents happening to children under fifteen years of age. Since 1919 we have decreased our death rate from contagious diseases 220.5 per hundred thousand population to 140.3 per hundred thousand, while our death rate from accidents has increased during this same period from 71.9 to 78.4 per hundred thousand. School accidents of various types rank high in comparison with other accidents. In a study made by Elson¹ in a limited area in Minnesota, he investigated 1492 major accidents with 54,000 pupils in seventeen towns and cities. These accidents are classified as follows: School accidents, 529; home accidents, 548; public accidents, 385; fatalities, 6. These accidents caused 2919½ days of lost time.

Studies to show types of preventive measures with school accidents have been made by special fellowships at the Universities of Columbia and Chicago. They are listed as follows:

1. Prevention of gymnasium accidents.
2. Prevention of athletic injuries.

¹ Elson, M. B., "The Value of School Accident Reporting," *Safety Education*, May, 1929.

3. Prevention of other school accidents.

In this chapter we may consider it as a part of physical education as we are discussing motor activities, skill, and information. Traffic conditions represent real hazards in the vicinity of many schools, both rural and urban. One of the best types of instruction is that of observing traffic signals. Boy Scouts assist pupils in crossing streets in many cities, while special traffic squads of boys are being carefully trained by the traffic department of the city police in other cities. While these precautions are necessary in many places, they may not function to best advantage unless you as a classroom teacher will arouse an interest in observing these traffic regulations. This instruction is so effectively given in some places that groups of little children have been observed to wait patiently on the curb when the school traffic officers were a few minutes late.

We have other types of hazards, such as use of matches, gasoline, explosives, knives, axes, guns, and pistols. These hazards may well be discussed frankly with the pupils. Experience in some cases is too dear a type of education to permit the pupils to experiment with matches, fire, explosives, and sharp instruments. Harmful and dangerous elements may well be brought to their attention. Any instruction which will prevent serious accident, causing death, permanent or even temporary crippled conditions, is worthy of consideration and intelligent planning. In some cases the school can give such instruction more effectively than the home. Groups of pupils present problems not always apparent with an individual child. The home, however, should co-operate to secure the best results. The mother who came to the school on one occasion to

get her young son and refused to observe the traffic signals while walking across the busy street with the boy made it more difficult to give this instruction to her own son as well as to the other pupils. Extreme individualism may be a menace to group instruction given in the interest of all. Posters supplied by the Red Cross and various automobile clubs show safety precautions effectively.

Following is a list of some of the topics contained in a few of our outstanding courses on Safety Education:

1. A study of all kinds of home accidents and their prevention.

2. Fire accidents of all kinds and their preventive measures.

3. Public accidents such as drownings, railroad accidents, and pedestrian accidents.

4. The safety facilities of the police and fire departments.

5. The safety activities of the national and safety agencies, such as the coast guard, the weather bureau, the state motor vehicle department, the National Park Service, and the National Forestry Department.

6. The safety plans of private organizations, and how they attempt to prevent accidents.

7. Prevention of motor accidents.

8. Lessons in first aid.

Equipment and Apparatus for Physical Education.

1. Adequate playground space conveniently located with reference to the school exits and toilets, and yet removed sufficiently to avoid disturbing the academic work in the classroom is essential. A minimum of one

hundred square feet per child is recommended by such experts as Strayer and Englehart.¹ Better still would be twice this amount of play space. These playgrounds should be adjacent to the school so that they may be used not only during intermissions but during class periods when you as a teacher may take your own pupils upon these grounds without loss of time.

2. Adequate supervision of the expert type is necessary on the playfields. It is very doubtful as to the wisdom of providing large play areas without also providing sufficient supervision. One city in attempting to secure adequate supervision adopted the slogan, "An unsupervised playground is worse than none." In many cities the supervision is under the direction of school supervisors with special training and often they have special certificates required for the playground supervisors or play leaders. This supervision is especially necessary after school hours, on Saturdays and during vacation periods when the children need such play facilities.

3. Gymnasias and covered play spaces for inclement weather are necessary. It is well in large schools in which these places are so extensively used to schedule separate play places for the older and younger pupils, otherwise the younger pupils may be hurt or the older children monopolize most of the play area.

4. Apparatus for the Gymnasium:

- (a) Piano, phonograph, or radio.
- (b) Games equipment.
- (c) Play apparatus such as swings of all kinds, slides, and balancing bars.

¹ See their *Standards for Elementary Schools*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923.

- (d) A good swimming pool, while expensive, is highly desirable in teaching an important skill which is not only a very beneficial exercise but may save lives in peril.

5. Testing apparatus is also desirable to measure certain physical activities such as chest expansion, heart, and muscular strength.

Thus we see that health and physical education have most comprehensive programmes for realizing some of our most important aims in education. We want to develop the pupils physically, socially, and mentally. These programmes intelligently planned and skillfully administered will do much to attain these important goals of instruction. Physical games and activities which are likely to hold the interests throughout adult life should be especially encouraged in the schools.

Suggestive Problems

1. Trace the development of the various steps in Health and Physical Education in public education.
2. Name some important principles of modern education upon which Health and Physical Education are based.
3. List some of your responsibilities and duties regarding the health of your pupils.
4. Contrast Health and Physical Education aims.
5. Outline a comprehensive programme for building up a good health ideal with your pupils.
6. Suggest a plan for overcoming an anti-social attitude of a boy upon the playground. Of a girl.
7. List the values of outdoor life.

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CHAPTER XIII

THE NEW TEACHER

Preview Questions

1. What are some of the main problems of the new teacher?
2. What are some important steps to take in securing a position?
3. Why are confidential references given the most consideration in progressive places?
4. Of what advantage is it to us to keep the Placement Bureau of our Alma Mater informed as to our experience?
5. Under what conditions should you refrain from interviewing members of the Board of Education?
6. What should you do to prepare for a successful first day?
7. What types of information concerning your pupils are desirable to have early in the term?
8. Of what value is supervision to you as a teacher?
9. What information concerning the course of study should be sought before the opening day?

Experienced and Inexperienced.—The new teacher may be either experienced or inexperienced. In either case it requires intelligent study and planning to adjust to the new situation. If the teacher is experienced her background should contribute to her success in the new situation. Previous experience of a successful nature makes the new adjustment comparatively easy provided the new teacher does not undertake the new duties with a superior feeling. Previous successes assist us in our present situation only when we are willing to study new conditions as thoroughly as we did when we were inex-

perienced. These past successes do not mean that we can rest upon past laurels. Our previous experiences will contribute to our future success only when each new situation is a challenge to us. The experienced teacher with unfortunate previous experiences in which she was not considered a success, has something to live down and to forget except when she attempts to avoid repeating past mistakes. Her self-confidence should be established as soon as possible. Previous mistakes should not daunt our enthusiasm for present successes. Often a teacher who has failed in one situation has blossomed out in another.

The inexperienced teacher enters upon her new duties with no background of experience except her practice teaching. Lack of previous teaching experience may be no handicap whatsoever to the teacher. She has fewer traditions to overcome and no bad habits to correct. She starts with good training and plenty of enthusiasm.

Securing the Position.—There is a technique to employing teachers and a technique for securing a position. All teachers should work through the placement bureau of their alma mater. These placement bureaus are now endeavoring to function efficiently. We should assist them in every way possible. One way is by conferences or correspondence with the bureaus regarding each position we attempt to secure. These experienced people can give us many valuable suggestions to assist us in our inexperience. Another valuable way of assisting them is in keeping them informed as to any position we have secured. This information stops further assistance for us, for the time being, and avoids further attempts on the part of the bureau to fill the position. Still another service which we can render to the place-

ment bureaus is to give them information as to changes from one position to another. To give the highest type of service these bureaus must have the records of all graduates up-to-date. On many occasions, time is the essence in securing positions. When the records are up-to-date and the placement bureaus know of graduates who are seeking better positions and are qualified for them, recommendations can at once be sent out when inquiries come to the bureau.

Professional ethics should be observed carefully when seeking a position. Nothing of a derogatory nature should be said regarding any other candidate. That constitutes poor sportsmanship. If an employed teacher is offered a better position while under contract she should ask her superintendent if it is convenient for him and the schools to release her, explaining the advantage to her professionally. While occasionally a narrow, short-sighted superintendent will refuse such requests, the common policy now is to release all such teachers, as we want contented teachers and those who are ambitious to improve professionally.

Recommendations of a confidential nature, written mainly by superintendents, principals, supervisors, and members of the faculty of your alma mater, who are in a position to judge your qualifications, should be sent to the superintendent seeking to fill a vacancy. As indicated, these recommendations should be of a confidential nature. We are fast getting over the custom of taking "tailor-made" recommendations with us. "Tailor-made" recommendations are addressed to no one in particular and are often written by professors who dislike to refuse writing a letter of recommendation even though they think the candidate unworthy. The author

refuses to write all such recommendations, informing such persons that he would be glad to write directly to the parties seeking candidates. These confidential papers are not shown to the applicant as they constitute frank statements which assist all in judging the candidate adequately. This places all placements upon a high plane of professionalism which is in the interests of the teachers, the schools, and the pupils to be taught.

Personal interviews are now required for many positions in progressive places. While a few of these are held with members of Boards of Education, most of them are now being arranged with superintendents who are qualified to judge not only personal qualifications but the technical fitness of the candidate for the particular vacancy. This tendency is in the interest of the schools and the children. A teacher seeking a position should ascertain the policy of the schools where she is applying regarding interviews. When the Board leaves such matters with the superintendent it is best not to interview any Board members unless requested by the superintendent to do so. It is also unwise to ask influential citizens to intercede in her behalf. When matters are left to the superintendent he does not wish to be unduly influenced or coerced when he is endeavoring to fill vacancies in a highly professional manner. Any unprofessional conduct may prevent the candidate from securing the position.

Several items are considered during such personal interviews, all of which are likely to be personal in character. The superintendent knows the applicant's technical qualifications, as he has them in the confidential papers. It is somewhat difficult to convey an adequate description of personal qualifications, hence the

interview. The superintendent wants to judge the qualifications somewhat for himself, knowing the type of position he has to fill. There are a few outstanding personal qualifications which most superintendents judge. Personal appearance is always investigated. Does the applicant dress neatly? Is she clean? Does she dress appropriately? These are some of the questions which he will ask himself regarding the candidate.

Personality is another qualification often judged. The superintendent wants to know the quality of the candidate's personality. Is she pleasing, refined, forceful, and will she be able to influence the pupils in a wholesome manner?

Poise is another important qualification which the superintendent wishes to judge. This is a valuable personal characteristic for the classroom teacher, though somewhat difficult to judge in an interview as the candidate may be unduly nervous at such a time. A good or bad voice determines a teacher's success or failure. Here again it is difficult to judge accurately, as the quality of the candidate's voice may be unnatural because of the strain of the interview. Furthermore, her voice during an interview may be quiet and refined but high and rasping in the classroom. While the interview may not be an entirely satisfactory means of judging the classroom voice, the superintendent often takes note of it and endeavors to make due allowances. One superintendent was known to ask an applicant, applying for an English position in the high school, to read to him.

Familiarity with the personal qualifications which most superintendents endeavor to judge should assist the applicant and also the teacher in training to pre-

pare for these interviews. The questions asked the candidate are incidental to the personal qualifications judged.

Competent interviews with skillful questioning will bring out the candidate so that judgments may be made. Incompetent interviewers will often do most of the talking, telling the candidate about himself or his wonderful school system. The competent interviewer will permit the candidate to do much of the talking. However, the applicant, in her desire to appear well and thus secure the position, should guard against overdoing the talking, thus not permitting the interviewer to ask the necessary questions he desires to ask. Avoid overselling yourself. Interviews are important. Prepare for them and endeavor to judge the superintendent and his purposes that you can fit into the situation in a satisfactory manner for the interview.

The First Day.—A good beginning is an important element in success. The teacher's first day means much to her in the weeks and months which are to follow. We should spend plenty of time, possibly two or three days, preparing for a successful first day. One of the first plans should be that of securing a pleasant place to live in advance of the first day. This may take some time, especially when adequate living places are scarce, but when once secured before the opening of the term, your peace of mind is relieved to such extent you can do better work in planning a good beginning.

Advance Information.—There are several kinds of advance information which will assist you considerably in getting well started. Personal contacts should be made with the superintendent, the principal, and the supervisors, wherever possible. This is the first step in

overcoming your feeling of strangeness toward your professional associates. These officials will wish to help you make a good beginning and will probably have some suggestions and helpful information to give you. It might be well to have some definite pertinent questions regarding your work to ask them. The fact that you are doing some intelligent thinking and advance planning will make a good impression upon these school officials.

Advance information concerning the pupils is valuable. Naturally you will want to know the classification and approximate number of pupils. You will also want to know outstanding characteristics of the group. Are they of foreign parentage? What is their educational background in the home? Is it an accelerated, average, or slow group? What are the intelligence quotient and achievement records of each? These are a few questions you should ask yourself and possibly your principal on beginning your duties. The troublesome cases among the pupils are interesting information to you but should be taken carefully, *never* prejudicing you against such pupils. The fact that some pupils are known as troublesome, having caused other teachers more or less concern, should be a real challenge to you to influence them along wholesome lines. Your success with them will do much to secure the quality of confidence you want the principal, the parents, the pupils, and other teachers to have in you.

Advance information regarding the courses of study is invaluable. Secure these courses before school opens by all means. You will want to study them all during the year. Some early study of them will greatly assist you in getting started. The principal will be high-

ly pleased that you are getting familiar with the courses early. You will want to see your classroom, its location with reference to cloak-rooms, exits, and toilets, before school opens, so that advance planning can be done to facilitate your routinizing the management of your pupils. Have this routinizing of your pupils, coming in and going out of your classroom and the building, well planned in advance, even though your experience during the first few days may justify some modification of these plans.

The materials which the pupils use will enter into your plans. You will want to know the nature of the supplies furnished, the type of texts used, and how they are secured from the central storeroom. The records to use in distributing this material must also be carefully planned.

The First Day's Programme.—A thoroughly planned first day's programme will greatly affect your ultimate success. Having something definite for all pupils to do each minute of the day, with the necessary material in shape to use, will eliminate much of the drudgery and troublesome problems the first day as on subsequent days. An attractive classroom when the pupils first enter, and a pleasing, wholesome, companionable teacher will win the majority of the pupils before the day's work begins. While the pupils by means of clubs or committees should assist in making the classroom attractive, you may have to do much of this the first day unless you can get in touch with some of your pupils before school begins. It might be well to seek the active boy, who is somewhat of a leader, for some advance planning on classroom attractiveness. Ask your principal how to get in touch with such a boy.

One of the first tasks which may be scheduled on your first day's programme, after some expressions of greetings to the pupils, is that of distributing books and other necessary material. Pupils will at once catch the spirit of orderliness and efficient management if this task is performed without confusion. Pupils carefully selected may assist in this work of distribution. An active pupil who often causes annoyance, if not busy, may well assist in this work. This is one of the first opportunities that you will have to avoid confusion, to show yourself master of the situation in securing smooth working conditions and establish the good will of the pupils at the same time. Some checking of texts may be necessary to assure yourself that all have received copies and thus cannot assert the receipt of no text later when they have misplaced a book.

Next you should plan very definite tasks in the various subjects for each period of the day. It is a good plan to arrange for some easy review work the first few days, possibly of a testing nature. You will want to know what phases of work the pupils have forgotten during the summer vacation and where some drill and review are necessary before your term's work is begun on the courses for your grade. It always saves time to do some carefully planned reviewing before advanced work is begun. This familiarizes you with the needs of the pupils and helps to clear up some hazy conceptions with them.

Definite assignments of work should be planned intelligently. Be sure every pupil has a task and knows exactly what to do. Allow no idle moments for the fomenting of trouble. Do not overwork the pupils at first. Keep them busy, but turn on the power slowly.

Arrange for sufficient relaxation periods to assure adequate enthusiasm for work after having been out of school for the entire summer. Take plenty of time discussing assignments with the pupils so that they may thoughtfully understand them and be interested in performing the assigned tasks.

All during these first contacts with the pupils try earnestly to secure their confidence and good will. Having your work well in hand will do as much as anything to arouse their confidence in you. A pleasant attitude and a demonstrated confidence in the pupils' assistance in routine matters will tend to secure the type of good will you desire. Remember it is possible to be firm but cheerful, not an easy task but a very rewarding one.

You will find it to your advantage to do considerable observing of the pupils the first day. You may find it well not to have the pupils conscious of your observation of them. Observe their study habits, their social attitudes and abilities, and whether or not the pupils are seated to the best advantage for good working conditions.

Toward the close of the day it may be wise to hold a pleasant conference of three or four minutes' length with the pupils. You can go over some of the work of the day with them. If possible, say something good to them concerning their attitude and their work habits. Above all have the pupils understand that you believe in them, having confidence in them to assist you in securing a pleasant year for all in the room. If some of the leaders wish to remain for some monitorial work at dismissal time, allow them that opportunity to assist you.

Plans for the second day will be influenced by the

mistakes and successes of the first day. Many interesting discoveries will be made during these first days. These observations will assist you in planning wisely for the second day and the days to follow.

Relationships.—Success in most vocations in modern society depends upon the nature of our social contacts with every one we meet. Technical efficiency is one element of success while ability to meet people and to work harmoniously with them is another element, often of equal if not greater importance. Personal relationships with those in supervisory positions should be of the best type. These supervisory officials will at once begin to characterize you. You will find it to your advantage also to characterize them. You will want to know something of them from a personal standpoint so that you may be able to meet them professionally to the best advantage. This is a necessary element in meeting any one. As a new teacher I should want to know the type of principal with whom I work from the standpoint of mental alertness. Nothing is so depressing as to work with a fossil who lives in the past, believing that all the best was performed many years ago and that our modern attempts to improve are unwise. On the other hand it is stimulating to work with a mentally alert official, one who believes that the future is to be shaped by improving the best that has gone before. Fortunately, for you, most of the supervisory staff with whom you will be associated are of the latter type. Congratulate yourself upon your good fortune to work with an alert, stimulating person. You will want to know the nature of your superintendent's and supervisor's beliefs regarding formalized and informal instruction. While this book has attempted to show the informal type with

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a few formalized procedures, you may be working with a superintendent who is of the formal type. Naturally, then, you may be obliged to fit into his plans. Fit into your local school situations regardless of personal beliefs. If you can gradually modify beliefs and practices, well and good.

In your relationships with your principal, the first and most apparent contact will be of an administrative nature. You will be judged very early by your ability to manage your room. Many principals will consider three important elements in classroom management. One will be the degree of interest and good will which you are able to arouse in your pupils. Other means may be your ability to manage the pupils outside your classroom. Their ability to control themselves in an orderly, independent manner without constant supervision will form a basis of judgment. The problem of leaving the room to go to the toilet during the school session may also be a basis for judging your ability as a teacher. This problem is discussed in the chapter on Classroom Management.

Another administrative contact will be that of your ability and willingness to carry your share of the load of extra-classroom activities. These activities are now an essential part of every school programme. Your principal will be highly pleased if you have the ability and the desire to perform some services of this kind for the school. It may be playground duties, orchestra, or glee-club leadership, supervision in the school lunch room, or leading one of the various school clubs. All of these activities must be sponsored by the principal or some member of the faculty.

Another contact which you will have with your prin-

principal and his office will be in your statistical reports. Try to have all such reports in on time and accurately prepared. Nothing annoys some principals more than tardy or inaccurate reports. There are much more important duties for you in the school than the clerical work but such duties are a part of your tasks. It will assist you in your harmonious relationships with your principal to have your reports promptly and accurately done. It will please your principal and also be of value to you as a teacher if you will analyze your own reports. If you are preparing an attendance report, is this record of your pupils as good as you can make it? If it is a statistical report of some standardized test, how do your pupils rate? Where are the weak spots? What can you do to eliminate these shortcomings of your pupils?

One of the most important relationships with your principal is that of a supervisory nature. He will supervise your instruction and your classroom management very early in the term. Your attitude toward this supervision should be of the best. You should realize that it is a part of modern education to have supervision, that it is justified only when it is helpful to you. It cannot be helpful to you unless your attitude toward it is desirable. Supervision is no longer of the inspection type with progressive principals. Plan to receive it graciously and get as much help as possible from it. One splendid way of using supervisory officials is first to analyze your problems, then go to them for assistance in solving these problems. It is well to remember that supervision is to improve teachers as well as teaching. With the right attitude toward supervision and with supervision of the highest type you will con-

stantly improve. This will be a source of satisfaction to you and will mean much to you in your professional advancement. One condition which will assist you in your advancement from one position to another will be the endorsement of school systems which have well organized programmes of supervision. Your attitude toward this supervision and your ability to profit by this supervision will determine the character of your recommendations.

Relationships to the community are most important. Some communities may seem somewhat narrow in vision and somewhat exacting in requirements upon your own personal time. This is unfortunate. However, in small communities it is wise to observe their conventions while there, hoping for a more liberal type of people in your next position. Unless the parents have confidence in you, you may be handicapped in your influence over the pupils and hence lessen the possibilities of success. Diplomatically you are justified in stating that some of your out-of-school time belongs to you to refresh yourself, to recreate, to meet your own friends, and for personal reading, so that you may enter the classroom each day with enthusiasm which is not possible if the demands on your outside time are too exacting. You should avoid church and partisan conflicts even though as a citizen you have the right to attend the church of your own choice and vote as your conscience dictates. Avoid fraternizing too much with a few of your pupils outside the classroom and with the parents of only a few of your pupils. You should guard against accepting presents and special favors from parents, especially when such parents are influential. Parents often embarrass teachers by too

many favors forced upon them, expecting special consideration for their children. We must avoid obligating ourselves to certain parents and pupils, and giving the appearance of accepting or even being in a receptive mood for gifts and special favors. Presents and favors may handicap you more than you realize. Teachers who give the appearance of receiving favors as an indication of their marked success, fool only themselves. Experienced principals and superintendents readily see through such plans to the sham behind them. You doubtless would never think of definitely seeking special favors, yet you must always be on your guard when parents attempt to influence you to grant special favors to their children.

Budgeting Your Time.—It is necessary for us all to budget our time when we live in a busy world with so many demands upon us, so many worth-while activities to catch our interests. Following is a list of wholesome activities for which our time budget should provide:

1. Time for physical recreation to keep our health and physical vigor in excellent condition.
2. Time for general, recreational, and cultural reading.
3. Time for some professional reading.
4. Time for extension courses, lectures, operas, theatres, and summer school sessions.
5. Time for friends.
6. Time for social engagements in the community, even though a few of them are of the obligation type.
7. Time for rest and relaxation.
8. Time to think.

Self-Confidence.—As suggested throughout this

book, self-confidence is necessary to success in any vocation. Naturally this self-confidence must be of the right quality, not too much nor too little. We must believe in ourselves if we are to have others believe in us. We must believe we can accomplish a given task efficiently before we attempt it. Self-confidence of the right quality implies a thorough readiness for each task. As a new teacher you must believe in yourself. You must establish your own self-confidence and self-esteem as early as possible. This may be done by right attitudes, thorough preparation, intelligent thinking, and fine social contacts.

Suggestive Problems

1. You apply for a position with a superintendent who informs you that another graduate of your college whom you well know has applied in person before you. This superintendent attempts to draw you out concerning this other candidate. What should be your attitude?
2. In a certain progressive city, the Board of Education interviews no candidates for positions, relying entirely upon the nominations of the superintendent. An influential, but well-meaning citizen offers to see certain members of the Board for you. What is likely to be the attitude of the superintendent? What should you do about it?
3. A busy-body teacher, but with good intentions, attempts to prejudice you against some pupils you are to have. What should be your attitude?
4. Plan a suitable programme for the first day with a second grade class.
5. In one city the superintendent does not seem to be progressive or stimulating, yet he leaves his teachers alone to work out their own problems without supervising them. In the other city, the superintendent is progressive, alert, supervises his teachers, and has supervisors

- to help all teachers. Which position should you select? Explain fully the reasons for your choice.
6. Outline a safe plan for securing the confidence of your principal early in the term.
 7. Well meaning but thoughtless people attempt to take too much of your out-of-school time. How can you meet this situation without giving offense?
 8. Are you a poor mixer outside your own group?

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